00086203

THE
ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BOMBAY
Town Hall, Bombay.

Digitized with financial assistance from the
Government of Maharashtra
on 02 January, 2016

MY NOTE-BOOK.

86203
dc
628

By JOHN MACGREGOR, Esq.

AUTHOR OF 'BRITISH AMERICA,'
ETC. ETC.

5 - 1 - 14 (ROYAL)

IN THREE VOLUMES.

VOL. III.

LONDON:
JOHN MACRONE, ST. JAMES'S SQUARE.
MDCCCXXXV.

914
Mac/My-1
86203

THOMAS CURSON HANSARD, PATER-NOSTER-ROW.

MY NOTE BOOK.

LUCERNE.

I found at Altorf that my best route to this town would be all the way by water; or at least to Selisberg; and thence by a very richly picturesque road to Stanz. The latter I preferred, and stopping at Stanz, which lies in a smiling valley embellished with chesnut and other fruit trees, and is peopled by a simple, comely, honest, and frank race, with neat peculiar costumes, and very superstitious manners. In every house you see the image of St. Nicholas of Flüe.* I there

* St. Nicholas or Claus of Flüe, was as extraordinary in his sphere as, and a far better man than the Emperor Charles V., and like him, an example of the influence of superstition over men in other respects of profound judgment and great capacity of mind. Swiss history represents Claus of Flüe as a man whose pa-

saw also the coat of mail worn by Winkleried at the battle of Sempach, and a statue of that devoted hero. From Stanz there is an agreeable road to Stanztad on the lake, from whence I crossed in a boat to Lucerne.

triotism merited imperishable renown. He was born in the beginning of the fifteenth century, of one of the most distinguished families of the Canton of Unterwalden, and he is said to have been, not only greatly illustrious at the plough, and for his agricultural talents, and in educating and bringing up his children, but heroically mighty in combatting the Austrians at Ragatz and Diessenhofen.

At the age of forty-seven he tore himself from the embraces of his family, and retired to a hermitage amidst the wild and hideous solitudes of Melchthal. Here his wisdom and the reputation of his virtues, rendered him the object of general veneration. From all parts pilgrims came to visit his cell—to ask him for his counsel and his prayers. His austere life, his imperturbable temper, and his grave laconic manner of speech, inspired all who visited and who heard of him, with little less than adoration.

On one occasion only did he ever leave his hermitage. It was on it being communicated to him that the Diet assembled at Stanz was on the point of separating in a spirit that would tend to the disunion of the Confederacy. Claus appeared among them as if he were the tutelar genius of the Confederation. His wisdom and reasoning appeased their passions, dispelled their dissensions, and restored concord and union. He then returned to his cell, and died at the age of seventy. The stone which served him as a pillow is still shown; he only used bed-clothes during very cold weather. Two of his sons were successively Landammen; and his descendants are still numerous in the Obwalden.

On landing I walked first to one hotel and then to another, but could find no trace of my errant party. At last, an hour after dark, I found that they had been at the *Cheval Blanc*, but having become impatient and tired of Lucerne, they had left for Berne. This was vexatious enough, and more so when I found that I had not more than five francs of money left.

It was no use, however, to be either disheartened or vexed about the matter; I called for the head waiter, told him I had no money, that I wanted a warm bath, a good bed, a good supper, and also a man with a *char-à-banc* and a strong horse next day to carry me—not by the direct high road—but by way of Mount Pilate, Entlibuch, and Interlachen to Berne; where if I overtook my friends I would pay for all, but if I did not meet them at Berne, the man with the *char-à-banc* must follow them with me until I did. The head waiter was perfectly satisfied. Let any one think of an exhausted way-farer, with his coat covered over with dust, and rent in more than one place; shoes covered with clay; a

crushed hat, and no luggage but an earth-soiled cloak, arriving at an English hotel, quite as large and as imposing in appearance as the Clarendon, and making such a request as I did of the head waiter of the *Cheval Blanc*. Would he not be turned out of the house or be carried before a magistrate?

All my wants were attended to at this hospitable Inn as readily as if I had come in a splendid equipage, and never, certainly, did I stand more in need of bodily comforts. After a luxurious and invigorating bath and an excellent supper, I committed my limbs to the softest and most fragrant of beds, and slept soundly until sunrise.

Dressed as well as I could, I sauntered out in the morning and walked over the town. I first, as I usually do, walked into some of the book-shops. In that of Mr. Meyer I saw Keller's Grand Panorama of the views surrounding the Rhigi. In the Church of St. Leger, there is an imposing, but not agreeable picture, of which the people think highly — Christ on the Mount of Olives, by Lafranc. Lucerne is a very Ca-

tholic place; but there is much more that is prepossessing in the appearance of the inhabitants, than in that of those of Zurich. Pressed as I was for time, (as I had determined to ascend Mount Pilate) there were two objects which I was first resolved to see—the Lion of Thorwaldsen near the town, sculptured from a rock, in the garden of General Pfyffer—and the relief of Switzerland by the General himself. I saw both, and each—the one as a work of simple beautiful poetic conception and execution; the other as the extraordinary execution of a laborious and scientific genius, is perfectly unique.*

* Another celebrated man, Professor Hottinger, resides at Lucerne, where he is occupied, exclusively of his academical duties, in completing his Continuation of Müller's History of Switzerland.

F. Balthazar who died in 1810, has written, besides other works, a very curious and rather pedantic book, relative to the famous characters of Lucerne. I have merely dipt into it, and the only copy I have seen was at the *Bibliotheque de Roi* at Paris. Its title is, *Museum Virorum Lucernatum Fama et Meritis illustrium.*

The covered bridges of Lucerne are remarkable for their paintings: the Mill Bridge constructed in 1403, has thirty-six paintings representing the Dance of Death, copied by Meylinger. Chapel Bridge, sixteen hundred feet long, and built in 1303, is ornamented with one hundred and fifty-four paintings, nine of

I returned to the *Cheval Blanc*, my *char-à-banc* was in waiting. I got my very moderate bill, gave it to my conductor; the waiter attended as politely to see me off as if I had paid it, and bidding adieu to Lucerne, drove of for Krienz on the brow of the Pilatus.

which are historical, the others pretend to relate passages in the lives of St. Leger and St. Maurice, the patrons of the town; and the Hof Bridge, fourteen hundred feet long also covered and decorated with two hundred and thirty-eight paintings, of subjects from the Old and New Testament.

GENERAL PFYFFER'S PLAN OF SWITZERLAND.

THE remarkable works of genius and art which I have seen at Lucerne have left such pleasing impressions on my mind that while their images are still fresh, I must note down a few words about them before I say any thing of Mount Pilate.

General Pfyffer is not only a gentleman of great scientific abilities, but a man of much taste in the arts, and a skilful naturalist. His plan in relief of one hundred and eighty square leagues of Switzerland includes the Cantons of Lucerne, Unterwald, a great part of the Cantons of Schwytz, Uri, Zug, and the frontier districts of Berne, Zurich, and Aargau. The highest mountains (nine thousand, seven hundred feet, French) in this wonderful representation of nature, are elevated ten inches

above the level of the lake of Lucerne. Its size is twenty-three feet by thirteen, and is composed of one hundred and thirty-six square pieces which may be separated and each viewed distinctly by itself. The precision with which the forms of mountains, rocks, lakes, and valleys, are delineated—the exactitude which pervades the most minute details, and the striking truth in the representation of the natural aspect of the country, are equally astonishing. Not a house, *chalet*, path, road, church, or cross is omitted. I traced my route distinctly up Mount Pilate on this the most faithful of charts. Here was the meadow of the Grutli — there the ruins of Goldau. The field of Sempach and the lake of Egeri, Mortgarten, and Entlibuch. The Rhigi and the lake of the Waldstatten all in faithful similitude.

The illusion of this picture is increased to its utmost extent by bringing the eye to a level with its surface, and by moving round its boundaries and looking through a multiplying glass. In doing so for a few minutes the delusion is complete, and we can hardly

believe that we see a work of art — that we are not in reality beholding Switzerland with her mountains, valleys, woods and waters, as nature created them.

THE LION OF THORWALDSEN.

THIS celebrated national monument was erected to the memory of the thousand unfortunate Swiss guards who were massacred at Paris on the 10th of August 1792. The Lion was first modelled in plaster at Rome by Thorwaldsen, and on arriving at Lucerne was much damaged and broken; the face or mask was in fragments, but Colonel Pfyffer collected them carefully and cemented them together.

It was then determined upon, that a singular rock in the garden *à l'Anglais* of General Pfyffer near Lucerne should be sculptured into the national monument, and the execution was entrusted to a young artist of Constance named Ahorn, who has perfectly succeeded in transmitting to the rock a faithful colossal representation of Thorwaldsen's model.

The Lion, which is recumbent, is thirty feet

(English) in length from the nose to the root of the tail, and in the proportion of nineteen feet in height, had it been represented standing.

The rock is cut out so as to represent a cave of moderate depth, and forty-six feet in length, by thirty in height. Above it you observe the inscription, "*Helvetiorum Fidei ac Virtuti*," and beneath, on the immense pedestal or base, the names of the officers and soldiers who perished, defending the Tuilleries, and of those who escaped and who have contributed towards the erection of this monument. Near the foot there is a small chapel; on the door of which are the words "*Invictis Pax*," and the altar of which is covered by an embroidered silk cloth, on which are wrought the words, "*Ouvrage de S.A.R. Marie Thérese de France, an* 1825.—*Donné à la Chapelle du Monument du* 10 *Août* 1792, *à Lucerne*." Opposite you observe a lodge—that is the dwelling of one of the invalids who survived the massacre, and who now guards the monument. In front there is a pretty sheet of water fed by several murmuring streamlets. The rock is richly crested with thriving

shrubs :—knots and clumps of trees add beauty and picturesque effect to the whole. But we have still to speak of the *chef d'œuvre.*

The dying Lion, in the sublimity of poetical expression, covers with his body a *fleur de lis* buckler, which he has no further power to defend; the lance which pierced his side remains thrust in the flank; the face expresses at the same time, the grief of noble feelings and the resignation of tranquil courage. His redoubtable paw is extended as if to defend against a fresh attack; his eyes half-shut seem weeping for the fate of France, and as about to be closed for ever; and yet the visage still retains its own dauntless character — "tremendous still, in death."

ASCENT OF MOUNT PILATE.

"No mountain in Switzerland," says Ebel, "was formerly more talked of, or more frequently described, and none that is less known in our days, than Mount Pilate." In romantic wildness, in difficulty of ascent, in ruggedness, and in elevation, it is far superior to the Rhigi. It rises 8,025 English feet above the level of the sea, with seven peaks which elevate their rugged heads and pyramids around the Brundlen Alp. Classical scholars say its name is derived from the word pileus, a cap or bonnet, from the summit being generally, in fine weather, crowned with a small cloud resembling a cap. In old chronicles it is called *Mons Fractus* and *Frakmund*, from its craggy precipices, fractures, and peaks, on the North and East. But the country people, and particularly those who feed their flocks on its flanks and in the valley of Entlibuch have, as usual, their own stories on the subject.

They say that Pontius Pilate having, immediately after the crucifixion of our Saviour, felt the full enormity of the dreadful deed, remorse made him a wanderer over the face of the earth. That he traversed mountains and valleys in despair, until he ascended this mountain to the small unfathomable lake on the Brundlen Alp, into which he plunged; and that he has remained alive in torment at the bottom ever since, empowered by the Devil—the prince of the power of the air—to send forth storms.*

* The particular position of this lake and the evaporations arising from it, which are much more rapid on the Alps than on the plains, account naturally for the frequent storms which break over Mount Pilate.

Ebel remarks that "violent storms burst over Mount Pilate, in consequence of the vapours which arise from the lake and gather and repose on its peaks."—When the column of vapours rises above their summits it dissipates in the surrounding atmosphere; but ordinarily it attaches to the peaks of the mountain, then gradually dilates and finally acquires such formidable magnitude that it bursts with violent wind and rain, and terrific lightning and thunder over the mountain and surrounding country.

It was the frequency of this phenomenon, that caused the superstitious alarm which terrified the inhabitants of Lucerne and neighbourhood, during the dark ages.

This and many other fables relative to Mount Pilate, accredited by centuries of superstition, were confirmed by a law forbidding any one to ascend the terrific mountain without a written permission from the Magistrates of Lucerne, and a guarantee not to profane the lake by throwing in stones or otherwise provoking the evil genius who dwelt in its profundity.

The herdsmen who tended their flocks on the adjoining pasturages took an oath annually, not to conduct any person thither, nor even to show the path. A herald proclaimed this order to the mountaineers, for which service he was paid a florin of the Empire. Those who ventured to ascend the mountain without permission were imprisoned; and an act exists among the archives of Lucerne, relative to the condemnation of several priests arrested, in 1307, on the path leading up the Pilate. Vadianus and Stumft both state that many persons were executed for the same transgression.

The superstitious belief in gnomes, evil genii, and especially in the power of the doomed Pontius to blow storms forth from the lake, had

gained universal credence, when John Müller, curate of Lucerne, persuaded the Magistrates, in 1585, to allow him to ascend the Pilate, so as to dispel, or confirm, what was reported of the awful lake.

He accordingly, accompanied by a *cortège* of the curious and numerous herdsmen from the vicinity, ascended to the forbidden waters, and throwing stones and branches of trees into the waves, he called out loudly "Pilate! throw forth thy slime and thy storms." Pilate answered not,—the lake remained tranquil,—there was neither storm nor inundation;—and Müller at last persuaded a bold peasant to leap in and swim round it. Still the adjured awoke not; and the astonished assemblage returned to their homes. Yet credulity would not relinquish its prejudices; and, nine years after, Müller obtained from the Magistrates the privilege of draining the lake. This work was commenced, but obstacles of great difficulty stood in the way—the undertaking was relinquished, and the people continue to believe in, and dread, the evil genius of the Lake and of the Mountain.

So much for the legend.—Now for my journey to the summit of this redoubtable Alp.

We ascended in the *char-à-banc* to the pastoral village of Krienz, without difficulty—the limestone and partially schistous precipices rising boldly, first before us, and then on the left as they stand facing the lake of Lucerne—between which and the mountain, there are picturesque green pastures with cattle, clumps of trees, and here and there *chalets*. We then ascended, sometimes in the *char-à-banc*, sometimes on foot, along the flank of the mountain, on which numerous herds were browsing, to the hamlet of Hergottswald; at the auberge of which we dined, and from which there is a magnificent view. From this station to Eigenthal the road is difficult, but passable by horse, and with such a firmly constructed, low wheeled *char-à-banc* * as we had.

I could scarcely have believed, before this time, that any wheeled carriage could possibly have gone over such places as these *Char-à-bancs* do in Switzerland—The *Deerborns* in the Corduroy roads of the back settlements of America do wonders: but the *char-à-bancs* roll on, comparatively to them, with sublime contempt of dangerous passes.

From this second station we proceeded on foot up the winding path between firs, rocks, rhododendrons, and heather, until we reached the Brundlen Alp. On our way the guide directed our attention to one of the most extraordinary firs imaginable. It is somewhat more than eight feet in diameter at fifteen feet above the soil. Nine limbs, about three feet thick and six long, then branch horizontally from its trunk, and then each limb grows up vertically, like a distinct tree. The appearance at a distance is that of nine closely-grown trees.

The sun was nearly setting when we reached the Chalet of Gantersay, built in the face of a limestone precipice rising 1,500 feet high over this our resting place for the night on the Brundlen Alp. A more glorious sunset I never beheld—not a cloud obscured the heavens—the long range of the snowy Bernese Alps, and of Uri and Glaris, were brightly resplendent—the peaks of the Pilate shed a rich light purple and red colour—the valley of Entlibuch, and the pastoral hills, vales, and lakes of Lucerne and Berne, exhibited magnificently diversified

scenery. Then the Kühreihen (*Ranz des vaches*) echoing from steep to steep—from the Alpine precipices to the slopes of the Pilate, as the cows were gathered in from the pastures towards the Chalets, added peculiar melodious animation to the otherwise tranquilly sublime panorama.

The flanks of Mount Pilate are inhabited all the year round by a hardy pastoral people, who live to a remarkably advanced age, notwithstanding their rather meagre diet, the rigor of winter, and their exposure, at all seasons, to the weather. They are superstitious and devout, and if ever human beings be virtuous in their lives, the scanty population of this stern mountain region must be classed among the number.

For some time after the sun-set, the Alps and the seven peaks of the Pilate were brightly tinted. The Knapstein* presented overhead a peculiar

* Knapstein, rocking stone, is a huge mass of rock, on the summit of one of the peaks of the Brundlen Alp. It frequently moves to and fro, and at all times seems as about to precipitate itself into the abyss below.

and threatening appearance. Our guide and two herdsmen, belonging to the Chalet, then conducted us to the celebrated echo. It also is on the Brundlen Alp. Few persons have lungs sufficiently strong, or voices clear enough to bring forth the echo; but the peasants, accustomed to make the rocks resound to their voices, turn half round, first to the right, then to the left, singing loudly the Kühreihen, with sufficient intervals between each note to allow time for the echo to rebound from the precipices of the surrounding peaks and rocky caverns. Both our herdsmen were famed for their skill in producing this singularly wild harmony—especially grand, during the stillness of so beautiful a night: it might well call forth Pontius himself from the vasty deep of the adjoining lake. We remained half an hour enjoying the extraordinary duet. On returning, I begged one of the herdsmen to call aloud to Pilate, as I should be delighted to see his power exercised on the lake, in which the stars were then brilliantly twinkling, with the bright milky-way and the blue heavens transparently reflected. He shuddered at the idea, and

it would seem as if nothing on earth could tempt him to provoke the demon of the lake; I, however, called out probably as loudly as Müller did exactly one hundred and fifty years before, and in the same words—"Pilate! throw forth thy slime and thy storms," but he remained deaf to the summons, even when further provoked by my throwing in a large stone, which feat produced no manifestation saving the chasing of the counterpart of the heavens from its peaceful bosom.

On returning to the Chalet, we opened our little store of provisions; I gave half of what we had to the women—one old, and one young, and to three children, and then made glad the hearts of the peasants I had terrified by attempting to provoke Pontius, with a full glass of brandy from my flask. The women brought us milk and fresh butter, on which, with some biscuits, I supped. My guide and the herdsmen finishing the remaining portion of meat between them. I rolled my cloak around me, lay down on a long bench, and slept soundly until wakened by

little after four o'clock in the morning, when we had some boiled milk, and bread and butter, and started at five o'clock to ascend the peak of the Widderhorn.

We first, however, turned off by a path in nearly a contrary direction to view that extraordinary white figure at the entrance of an inaccessible cavern in the steep black face of the Brundlen Alp. It has the perfect appearance of a gigantic man, resting with his arms on a table, his legs crossed—the seeming guardian of the cavern. The mountaineers call him Cornell, or Saint Dominick, and the cavern Dominick's-loch. The latter traverses the Brundlen Alp, and opens at the opposite side, where the entrance is about seventeen feet in height, and nine or ten in breadth. To reach the latter is attended with great danger. It has, however, been accomplished more than once with the view of penetrating the cavern, which has been found to open into spacious vaults for about five hundred feet, and then the rocks, still leaving several jagged openings, render any further advance im-

possible. A cold wind and a stream of water issue from this entrance, to which the inhabitants have given the name of Monden-loch, (Moon's cavern.)*

As we stood on the Brundlen Alp the sun rose over the glaciers and snows of the Glarnish. The lakes were all covered with gray fog, and as Sol gloriously ascended in the heavens, the Alps and lesser mountains, with all the various features of Swiss scenery kindled into inexpressible grandeur.

It is frightfully dangerous—if not impossible—to ascend the Widderhorn without following a circuitous and steep path, in all its zig-zag course, little less than three miles. We, however, attained the summit in little more than two hours from the time we left the Brundlen

* A man named Hubert of Lucerne, resolved to determine whether the statue of Saint Dominick was a work of nature or of art, which it is impossible to say without reaching the entrance of the cavern. He was lowered down by a rope from the summit, but being obstructed by a projecting rock, he called out to those above to hoist him up again. He descended a second time, provided with a strong piked pole, passed the shelving rock, but the rope then broke, and the unfortunate adventurer was dashed to atoms.

Alp, and during the course of this giddy footway, the landscape was incessantly changing in its aspects, as the sun was ascending and dispelling the vapours. The day at last became perfectly clear, and as we stood on the limestone peak our magnificent prospect may be imagined. General Pfyffer says, that "in a clear day and with a telescope, thirteen lakes and the tower of Strasbourg may be seen." I, with mine, saw distinctly eight lakes, and if that of Lucerne be counted, with its deep locks, as four, I beheld eleven. The towns of Lucerne, Stanz, Sarnen, Stanztad—the lake of the Four Cantons, and the valley of Entlibuch, extended beneath our feet—the Cantons of Lucerne, Schwytz, Uri—a great section of Glaris, of Unterwald, and of the country extending to the Bernese Alps, of which we had also a glorious prospect—and then a part of Zug, Zurich, Aargau, Soleure, Basel, and the Black Forest, were all clearly visible. To detail the sublime picture after having sketched those I beheld from mount Kamor, and from the Albis, would be extremely tedious. In fact, there would be no end of describing

views of Swiss scenery; and we will therefore descend from our elevation to humble plodding life.

Mount Pilate and all its peaks consist of Neptunian rocks—there is a dark limestone with clay slate projecting occasionally in its slopes. The limestone is often streaked with quartz, and we frequently observed fragments with sea shells; especially those of the cockle kind. Among the Schistus rocks, which I fractured, I brought off two pieces with the impression of petrified fish. We were told, that below the peak of the Esel there are the trunks of two large petrified trees, at a much higher elevation than trees grow on the Alps; and on the same summit, although one hundred and sixty-two feet less in elevation than the Widderhorn, reposes the only snow which remains during the whole year. The Tomlishorn is said to be twenty-eight feet higher than the Widderhorn, but the eye can scarcely observe any difference in their elevations, and the latter is by far the wildest in its configuration—while the Kastlen is the most remarkable of all, for petrifactions,

and for being the retreat of the chamois, and the resort of woodcocks, eagles, and vultures. We saw the birds of the air, but not the chamois —the latter being nearly all destroyed—and the few that remain keep out of view among shelving ledges and hollows, inaccessible, as the herdsmen told us, to man. The botanist, from all that appeared to me, and from the reports of others, would find ample study among the plants of Mount Pilate. Besides countless others the Papaver alpinum (Alpine poppy), Ruta montana (mountain rue), Cistus umbellatus (shady cistus), are said to be, in respect to Switzerland, peculiar to this mountain. On the Matte-Alp, which is six hundred feet lower than the Widderhorn, there is another small lake. But neither it, nor the lake of Pontius, appeared to me as having been the craters of volcanoes, as some have stated. The surrounding rocks nowhere indicate volcanic origin.

For at least half an hour before reaching the summit of the Peak, I felt a drowsiness and an inclination to sleep and lie down; and I had to sit and rest a little every five or six minutes.

I have frequently experienced exactly the same feeling while travelling during severe frost in North America. We might have descended by the paths leading down to Alpanach in Unterwalden were it not that I wished to traverse the interesting pastoral valley of Entlibuch, so little known to most travellers.* We therefore retraced our steps to where we left our *Char-à-banc*, and from thence proceeded on our journey by the difficult road over the Bramegg and the little Emmenthal towards Entlibuch.

* I have never met an Englishman or a Frenchman who had visited Entlibuch. M. Sismondi, talking to me on the subject of pastoral life in Switzerland, said "I never hear Entlibuch mentioned that I do not rebuke myself for apathy in not having been there."

THE KUHREIHEN, OR RANZ DES VACHES.

The descent from the Bramegg to the lesser Emmenthal is remarkably wild, and so steep that it seemed as if we were, at every abrupt angular point, about to leap into the valley; yet the path, for the road is little more, is cut out in a zig-zag manner which renders it by no means dangerous, notwithstanding its frightful appearance. The evening was tranquil, and the lowing of the cows, the bounding of goats, and the singing of the herdsmen, boys, and women, and the sound of the horn at different elevations along the Alpine pastures, broke in most delightfully upon the silent grandeur of nature.

Ranz, in the Swiss-Roman-patois, signifies a succession of objects or sounds. Râhn in Gaelic and Reihen in German have, when applied to music, the same signification. Kühreihen or

Ranz. des Vaches may be considered the Cows' March.

This wild, simple, and somewhat melancholy air is of great antiquity. Each Canton has its Kühreihen somewhat differently, but slightly modulated. I have heard it sung in several districts; but I was more pleased than heretofore, with its effect amidst the pastures as we journeyed on to Entlibuch. The words differ according to locality, and we find the verses of the Kühreihen sung on the pastures of Mount Pilate, Entlibuch, Uri, Unterwald, Glaris, and Appenzel, each appropriate to their particular scenes and customs.

The full expression, force, and language of this national air, can only be justly heard among the mountains and at the doors of the *chalets* of the Pilate, Entlibuch, Uri, Glaris, and Appenzel, when the voice is accompanied by the Alpine horn, for which instrument the simplicity of the air is peculiarly adapted—when the rocks and grottos and mountains repeat its wild echoes at night, when all is invisible, the effect is magical and mysterious; and on those with whom its

associations are cherished from infancy, it must be overpowering.

Many eminent musical composers, professors, and amateurs, have arranged the Kühreihen so as to suit modern taste; but, like those who have modulated the beautiful airs and melodies of Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, they have in their attempts at harmony, destroyed its expression and its melody. The English modulations of the Ranz des Vaches, are wretched. Grétry has succeeded best, where he introduces it so appropriately in his overture to William Tell. Rousseau has also arranged the Ranz des Vaches, but with less success, in his Dictionary of Music; and it is said that Viotti used to play this air with enthusiastic effect on the violin.

The moral feeling or depression, called *mal du pays*, is more commonly experienced by people who have been brought up like the Swiss and Scotch, between which nations I have observed striking analogy in character, education, customs, ideas, feelings, prejudices, and religious observances.

The natural conditions of Switzerland and Scotland have produced, especially two, similar effects,—that of men enlisting as soldiers in foreign services, and of emigrations to distant countries, either in order to obtain subsistence, or otherwise to advance their condition in life.

Destiny allows but few of them to return to their native mountains; but the effect which the tales and songs of their country have on their feelings when far from the land of their fathers, is inconceivable to those bred in cities, or in counties where the population is crowded together in manufactories.

We have numerous accounts of the *mal du pays* produced in the Highland regiments, when abroad, on hearing such tunes as "Lochaber no more," and "*Cha til mi Chaoidhe, cha til mi tuillih,*" (We return no more) &c.; and the Swiss, who, the more faithfully he loves the simple paths of nature, the more elevated, solitary, and wild is the site of his habitation —the more he delights in the music of the Kühreihen—the more dear to him are the scenes of his youth.

ENTLIBUCH.

We had put up at the principal *auberge* in this interesting village—the little capital of its retired, but extensive valley, celebrated at all times for its mountain pastures and its hardy and brave inhabitants. "By the energy of their character," says Ebel, "they are among the most remarkable of the Alpine population of Switzerland."

The historians of the country speak of them as having always given proofs of their valour; and that in their glorious combats in defence of the liberty of their mountains and glens, they never appeared more redoubtable than when armed with their own massive clubs shod with iron—their famous Morgen-stern, (morning star). "The banners of Entlibuch and Thun, which loved to advance side by side in the combat, were invincible in the battle field of Morat,"

says a bard of the time, whose name is unknown to fame, but whose songs are unforgotten in the Alpine *Chalets.*

From time immemorial these mountaineers have been renowned for gymnastic feats—especially in wrestling prowess. Besides their almost daily exercises, they have one great holiday meeting for a general trial of strength. An open space in the valley is selected, in which the people far and near, the young and the old of both sexes, assemble. The old men are the judges—the young women have their eyes on their lovers, and animate the wrestlers to exert every muscle to the utmost extent of vigour and dexterity—The wrestlers advance into the middle of the circle, and the young men of Entlibuch have for antagonists, those of the surrounding hamlets and villages.

Before one of these modern Antæuses is declared vanquished, his antagonist must succeed in laying him twice prostrate with his back stretched on the ground. The struggle for conquest is frequently continued so long, that it is rare to find a man whose Herculean strength will endure

more than six successive contests. When all the combatants have had their prowess and dexterity put to the test, the two strongest terminate the struggle by three successive feats of wrestling, and the conqueror is then declared the champion of the valley. The remaining part of the day and most of the night is spent in singing, dancing and feasting: the mothers and daughters provide the refreshments, —all are decorated in their holiday costumes,— and very pretty they are: few countries can boast of a handsomer race of people than the inhabitants of Entlibuch.

In manners they are exceedingly vivacious, fond of music and of reciting various rhymes,— the productions of their rustic bards. They are superstitious, addicted to believe in the marvellous, and religiously attentive to the service of the Catholic church—never questioning its infallibility. On Shrove Monday, they proceed after mass to the Communal house—plant a flag before it, round which the multitude gather. Their chief bard advances on horseback, —costumed fantastically, and his head wreathed

with flowers; he halts before the standard,—the Magistrates compliment him, and present him the wine of honour to drink. The bard then, without dismounting, takes from his bosom a paper to which is attached the seal of Entlibuch. On this paper is written a witty satire turning into humorous but harmless ridicule, various persons of the valley. Names are not given, and one part of the amusement is in applying the satire with the most apt point to certain persons. The exaggeration is so great as to prevent angry feelings—burlesque is the object. Between the recitation of its various heads, the bard refreshes himself with a glass of the wine of honour,—and ends by causing immoderate laughter on reciting the concluding stanzas, at not only his own expense, but at that of the municipal authorities, and all others who aim at distinction, and also those who are considered the Gascons of the valley.

These, and many other customs of the olden time, still prevail among the happy pastoral mountains of Entlibuch and in the country ex-

tending to the lakes of Thun and Brienz, and as far as Meyringen and the vale of Hazli.

The nightly interview of lovers continues also as heretofore. When the family retire to bed the young man says his prayers, and repairs to the *chalet* of his chosen. Their respective dwellings are often leagues asunder—but love carries him from rock to rock along the mountain or the vale. In spring he delights to carry her nosegays of the flowers which he has collected on the most dangerous heights, and at other times various little presents. They talk love to each other, in perfect innocence of intention, until nearly day-break, when the lover bounds back to his father's habitation, and soon after resumes the occupations of the day.

When they marry, a band of musicians in advance, is followed by a cortège of the young men and women—the former with hats adorned with ribbons — the latter decorated with a double crown or wreath of the prettiest flowers. Then comes the bridegroom in his national costume fancifully ornamented, and the bride with a

virginal crown, neatly circling over her forehead, with her plaited apron snow-white, her vest crimson, her stockings scarlet, and with a large gay bouquet which she holds by her side. On her robe are embroidered her baptismal and family name, and her age. She is followed by the groom of honour, and the yellow woman; the latter carrying before her a basket filled with nosegays — the parents and elderly friends, bring up the rear. In this order they enter the Church, the curate then celebrates the marriage and pronounces the benediction, and the cortège, leaving the church in the same order as it entered, proceeds to the *Auberge* of the district. Here they all sit down at table to eat, drink and make merry. They dance and sing until two young men feign a dispute as to the pretensions of the bridegroom to the bride. A kind of bidding for her succeeds, each stating what he has in his power to exchange for the love of the fair object; then follows an old Swiss grotesque dance amidst the plaudits of those who do not join in it, during which the yellow woman dexterously takes the virginal crown

from off the bride's head, and the bouquet from the bridegroom's, throwing these ornaments into the fire. If the crown and bouquet do not crackle, it is considered by the old woman the presage of a happy marriage, and the dance is renewed with alacrity. This over, they proceed to the house of the bridegroom, where soups, meats, honey, wine, bread and cheese await them. Feasting, dancing, and songs, with putting the married couple to bed, form the joys of the night, and the wedding feast is afterwards often prolonged from day to day for one or two weeks: the poor are on these occasions never forgotten.

THUN.

At the *Auberge* of Entlibuch the intelligence of the landlord, who, I afterwards found, was a local magistrate, surprised me. He had read much, and gave me interesting, and, in some respects, lamentable accounts of the emigrations from Switzerland—then talked of the rent of land—the privilege of pasturing on the mountains—the right to cut fuel for winter use, and timber for house-building, and the mode of cultivating the soil of the valleys and the inferior declivities of the Alps. His son, a boy of about fourteen, attended to my wants at table. He, also, from what I was told of the means of instruction, was much more intelligent than I expected. The lad had really a tolerable knowledge of history and geography; understood French, and made several judicious remarks on the condition of the labouring people. There was on the table one of the almanacks common

in Switzerland—I forget the title, but its contents was something like that of "Poor Richard," and put into order by some Swiss Franklin, with the usual days of the months, holidays, sun and moon's setting; and to each month there was attached some thrifty and seasonable advice, and usefully appropriate information relative to husbandry and taking care of cattle.

We left the little patriarchal world of Entlibuch, with its freedom, flocks, and mountains, and travelled along the little Emmenthal, four or five leagues, to Escholsmatt, a village within the district of Entlibuch. Here we baited the horse, and I observed that the barns were constructed with the floors elevated higher than the usual depth of the winter snows, and that each had an inclined plane to ascend and descend, with sledges or carts. This part of the valley is cultivated with skilful care. The churchyard, close to the *cabaret*, is similar to that of Zug—with fanciful crosses, curious epitaphs in barbarous German, and graves decorated with the gayest flowers wrought into "immortals," festoons, and garlands. There are fine woods

around this village, and the architecture of the houses is not only ingenious, but fancifully picturesque. We then journeyed by a romantic road to Langnau in the Canton of Berne, passing an immense wooden work-house, or house of correction; and an hour afterwards we halted to bait our quadruped, and to refresh ourselves at a pleasantly situated auberge near Signau in the Emmenthal, where we were attended to by a handsome young woman, as neatly costumed as ever picture presented to view. She was the landlord's daughter; and, as is frequently the case, was, for her rank in life, accomplished. She had some musical taste, played on the guitar, and sung the Kühreihen sweetly. How does it occur that, in all German Switzerland, excepting Zurich, the young damsels are so *naïve* in their manners—that they have none of that false bashfulness which destroys the easy grace of female expression? The maidens of the Swiss valleys will, without hesitation, sing their national airs when you wish. They are as pure as the snow that covers the Jungfrau; and ill befall the man who would abuse

the confidence which their innocence of thought inspires.

On leaving the fertile Emmenthal, we drove across the country to this insignificant, but charmingly situated town. My guide and driver Lorenz, whom I found to be a trustworthy man and well acquainted with the geography of mountain passes, and the reputation of cabarets and hotels, drew up at the Freyenhof, which has every comfort as an inn, with countless guides to lead you to every peak and nook of the Bernese Alps, and who, although they accost you instantly on alighting, are nevertheless very civil. Being now on the beaten track, for the house was crammed with his Britannic Majesty's lieges, I will not intrude much on the precincts of those who have, for the last twenty years, been writing tours over the common roads of Switzerland. I shall, however, to gratify my own curiosity, ramble over a part of the interesting Oberland—here there is every convenience for doing so—guides, boats on the lake, *calèches*, *char-à-bancs*, horses, mules, and donkeys. From the window of the bed-room

to which I was shown, I have before me the Jungfrau, with her eternal immaculate hood and glassy apron, besides eight frozen seas with their sublime Alps, and the romantic lake, and the picturesque valley, forming the splendid outlines of a grand diorama.

THE OBERLAND OF BERNE.

Unterseen — Interlacken — Brienz — Meyringen — the Grindelwald — and the Jungfrau.

The Lake of Thun is as picturesque as any in Switzerland, and you almost regret that the boatmen land you so soon near its head at Neuhaus; from thence you walk to Unterseen, a little old town, from whence you see the sublime Jungfrau, clad in the purity of her virgin snow; lakes you have also, one on the right and another to the left, and, all around you, scenery enchantingly picturesque and sublimely romantic. Cross the stream which runs from the Brienzi to Thun, and in a few minutes you are in Interlacken,* one of the loveliest little towns

The hotels and houses at Interlacken were filled with English travellers and families. Ebel says of this town—"This is no longer a village in the Swiss character, but a town in the English fashion. The wooden houses with devices or inscriptions taken from the Psalms, with small oval windows, and steep roofs, are

in Switzerland—a charming summer's residence. Here Lorenz was waiting for me with the *char-à-banc*. The distance to the Jungfrau seems half an hour's ride, we drove nearly to its foot, and all those who visit Switzerland should do the same, were it only to see Lauter-Brunnen, and the "white horse-tail-like cascade," as Byron terms it, of Staubach;* and the terrific ruggedness of the Jungfrau.† On

replaced by elegant modern houses. The old inhabitants have gone over to Unterseen, and Interlacken is no longer inhabited but by English families. That the English and Scotch and Irish should travel as often as they please is perfectly right; but there is to me much that is deplorable in the cause and the consequences, on reflecting how many thousands of families from the United Kingdom are settled in various parts of the Continent—they all belong to the spending class. What is to become of their sons and daughters, when we consider that there is not one family in one hundred, living on the Continent, who can leave their children in a condition to form an independent portion of the spending class; and although they may learn more easily the foreign languages, I have no hesitation in saying, that they acquire no education which will adapt them for being numbered (when necessity will certainly demand that they shall) with the productive classes, unless it be in anti-position to the theory of Mr. Malthus.

* The Count of Walsh, in his notes on Switzerland and Lombardy, compares the Cascade of the Staubach to the "floating pendant of the Maids of Morven."

† I do not believe that the Jungfrau ever was ascended to its

returning by the same road, we turned off at Zweylütschinen for Grindelwald. We tra-

summit; although it is asserted that Mr. Mayer has accomplished the perilous undertaking. In difficulty of ascent, all declare that Mount Blanc is nothing to compare to the Bernese maiden; and having, since I have seen the latter, been at the foot of the former, I am of the same opinion, although I may very possibly be mistaken, as only those who have attempted both can determine. The outline appears alone to warrant my opinion; and all the guides tell you the Jungfrau still retains her virgin purity; although called Madame Dupuis, in derision of a gascon, M. Dupuis, who boasted that he had ascended to her utmost summit.

The Jungfrau is said to be the highest calcareous mountain in Europe. If its culm be limestone, this is true; but I doubt it, although its base and sides are certainly formed of that rock. Finster-aar-horn is two hundred and twenty-nine feet higher, and said to be composed of granite and gneis. The secondary Alps are chiefly transition limestones, brecia, and clay slate, and I am of opinion that all the high Swiss Alps, those covered with perpetual snow, are composed of Neptunian primitive rocks. The Oberland mountains, as far as the rocks bursting from them justify my conclusion, consist chiefly of primitive rocks. On the banks of the lakes of Thun and Brienz, on the south and east, transition limestone reposing on clay slate prevails, and continues to Lauterbrunnen; but on proceeding up the valley past Staubach we observe the limestone reposing on gneis.

The Stockhorn, which is a secondary Alp, consists, as far as trees and herbage grow, of limestone and clay, and its base and summit is entirely limestone. The Wetter-horn, which belongs to the Superior Alps, being nearly twelve thousand feet high, is stated by the Swiss geologists to exhibit, as interceptions to limestone reposing on Gneiss, magnetic ironstone in beds of clay.

velled chiefly on foot along that romantic rugged valley, at the foot of glaciers and terrific rocks. It was not my fortune to hear or see Avalanches. Lorenz said he heard one fall in the distance—I did not, neither on this wild journey nor since my arrival in Switzerland. On one valley of this district, Tchingelberg, which is inhabited, the sun only shines from the 28th of October, to the 8th of March. Here we had the highest Bernese Alps; the Finster-aar-horn, the Wetter-horn, and the Schreck-horn, all impending over us on the right.

The Grindelwald is certainly as romantic a country as Alps, glaciers, eternal snows, waterfalls and dark valleys, with green pastures, fine woods, herds and flocks as an exception to its generally wild character, can render the natural aspect of a mountain region.

We traversed the Oberlands from the village

which envelope also marine petrifications. I have avoided in these notes saying anything of consequence relative to a science which requires special study, to create that instructive interest which all geologists experience. Switzerland and all countries which exhibit the wild scenes of high mountain chains, valleys, cascades and turbulent rivers, are the true schools for the study of geology.

of Grindelwald, which is elevated three thousand three hundred feet, by Alpine ascents and descents and by way of Scheideck and its high pastures, and past the rocky promontories of the Wetter-horn, and the thundering falls of the Reichenbach, until we descended to the valley of Hasli, and halted at Meyringen. This is not the most dangerous, but certainly the most fatiguing journey I have made since I crossed the Alps of Glaris. The scenery near Meyringen and the cascades of the impetuous Reichenbach are of themselves more than worthy of all the peril and exertion. We travelled down the valley of Hasli by the road leading near the canal to Brienz,—from which by boat, but not rowed by the fair *batelière*, I descended the lake to Interlacken, where I had sent Lorenz to meet me, and then drove by Unterseen and the delightful road along the lake to Thun.

This excursion from Thun by the way of Interlacken to the Jungfrau,—then to the Grindelwald,—and thence to the valley of Hasli, and to Brienz, and by the lake to Interlacken, and then by the road back to Thun, unfolds every variety

of scenery which Switzerland affords. It has so frequently been detailed, that I will add nothing further to the delineations of picturesque tourists.

Exclusive of what Lord Byron would term the most anti-narcotic scenery on earth, the people, their dwellings, the pastures, and their herds of fine cattle, interested me delightfully. The inhabitants of Hasli are a remarkably athletic race, and the women, although somewhat too tall and muscular to be considered beautiful, are most symmetrically proportioned, and their oval faces remarkably handsome.

The road from Thun to Berne for about six leagues is excellent, and the country along the fast-flowing Aar, is in most parts well cultivated. We rolled rapidly along, and on approaching Berne, I was surprised at the number of pedestrians, equestrians, and the loaded carts we met, and charmed with the soft beauty of the scenery. On crossing the Aar to the town, we were told it had been a market day, on which occasion the country people flock in from all directions—they were all well clothed, and exhibited an appear-

ance of affluence in their means that I have not seen exceeded among any rural population.* The costume of the Bernese women is pretty and graceful, especially the head dress *à la Psyche.* We drove to the Crown hotel, where I was happy to find that my wife and friends were in the town. They had a little before gone out to enjoy their evening walk, and I soon after traced the direction they had taken, and joined them, to the delight of all parties.

* The weekly market day of Berne draws in from four thousand to five thousand country people, seven hundred to eight hundred carts, and fifteen hundred to sixteen hundred horses. There are two annual fairs also, and the manufactures, chiefly of woollens, cottons, and linens, paper, printed cloths, and leather, appear to be thriving.

BERNE.

THE Aar flows round three-fourths of this town, and were its landscape even destitute of the picturesque beauty and romantic grandeur which the magnificent prospect from the terrace commands, a noble river, sweeping majestically along, always imparts life and spirit to the scenery of its banks. Motion to be dull must be sluggish, and the founders of cities to insure their permanency, exclusive of the convenience of waters to float commodities, act wisely in studying this simple fact.

All the principal towns of Switzerland are so situated, and so are chiefly those of every country, except where towns have, like Versailles, been forced into existence in places which nature intended for corn-fields.

Berne is not only in the centre of the most fertile portion of Switzerland, but in a position which enables its citizens to behold the most noble Alpine prospects. From the beautiful

terrace, or promenade, elevated in front of the town near the cathedral, you behold the Jungfrau, Schreck-horn, Finster-aar-horn, Wetter-horn, Stock-horn, &c.—and, all round, you have luxuriant woods, orchards, vineyards, and cultivated fields. The view from the high hill of Gurten, two miles from the town, exclusive of the Alps, overlooks the fertile country to the west, and the lakes of Bienne, Morat, and Neuchatel.

I have heard the streets compared to those of Chester. The similarity is true only in as far as that in both you walk, if you please, under cover,—but the old narrow galleries and steps by which you ascend to them, and the confined streets and ugly houses of Chester, are as dissimilar as can be well conceived, to the spacious streets with piazzas to each, and the magnificent hewn stone houses of Berne. In fact, excepting the new town of Edinburgh, Saint Petersburgh, and some streets in Frankfort, there is not, considering its extent, a town in Europe superior in its streets and buildings to Berne*; and, more

* The name of Berne is said, to be derived from the German word bär (bear), or rather from its plural bärn, (bears) animals

than all, the streets and houses are clean, being supplied with water in every part, conducted by pipes under ground, and the sewers, like those

said to abound on its site, when founded in 1191, and forming the only figure on the shield or banner of the Canton. Near the barrier of Aarberg there is a fosse destined for several of those animals maintained at the public expense. A promenade surrounds this bear den. In the heroic songs of the people, the bear, figuratively the standard in battle, performs wonderful exploits—some of those collected by Tchredi are curious. We find a legend attached to the origin or locale of almost every conspicuous place, whether mountain or town, in Switzerland.

Berchtold of Zäringen, the puissant and valiant founder of Berne, was highly odious to the lesser feudal lords whom he reduced to humble submission for the degrading servility to which they subjected their vassals.

Taking advantage of his absence from the country, they caused general disorder in Switzerland, and on his return he seized and executed some of the most turbulent of their vassals. The proud barons then contrived, and succeeded in, a plan of atrocious vengeance. Berchtold had two daughters, young, lovely, and beautiful, and his wife, not more than thirty-five, retained so well the charms of youth, that she appeared little older than if she were their eldest sister. The barons who watched in ambush for them, in their walks near their castle of Burgdorf, stabbed them to the heart, and left Berchtold wifeless and childless.

Irritated at the extinction of his family, and having founded Berne, he granted the town such extensive privileges that all who hated the barons flocked within its walls and not only maintained the supremacy of Berchtold, but established a powerful enmity which finally humbled the refractory lords. So the legend hath it. History is not so positive.

of London, essentially contribute to this desirable object.

Berne, until the late changes, was governed by the aristocracy of the Canton. The rural population and the majority of the town's-people had scarcely any voice in the administration. At present it is one of the most liberal of all but the democratic cantons.*

Its learned institutions and schools for the education of youth, not only in the city, but in the country, are honourable to the government and the people †. The Public Library is especially worth visiting. It is rich in Roman, Greek, and Swiss antiquities, medals, and coins; and the Museum of Natural History contains specimens of all Swiss animals, plants, and minerals. There are many private collections, or museums, and the book and print shops have most of the modern publications of Germany and France, with the most remarkable views of Switzerland. As to the public buildings, the Cathe-

* See Sketch of the *Political State of Switzerland*, hereafter.

† See Statistical View of Public Education in Switzerland, Notes to My Note Book, No. 17

dral, after the plan of the same architect as that of Strasbourg, is not only a superb edifice, but stands in a more full view and admirable position, than any church in the other capitals of Europe*. The hotel and other buildings have little, excepting being solid and appropriate buildings, to attract attention ; but the hospitals and other benevolent institutions, especially those for orphans, and the great public granary, supported by thirty-four pillars, and in which also the corn market is held, are worthy the attention of those who would gain intelligence by travelling. In the vaults underneath, to which you descend by thirty steps, there are enormous *tuns* called *Lagerfass*. One, it is said, will contain two hundred and twenty-six *saums*—about seven thousand gallons.

* There are numerous curious German inscriptions on the tombs and monuments in the Cathedral. On the stone tables standing opposite to the monument of the founder of Berne, are inscribed the names of those who died fighting in defence of the country in 1798. The following is feelingly simple.

"*Dem Andenken der Unglücksjahr* 1798 *für des Vaterland gefallenen.*" literally—"To the memory of those who in the unfortunate year 1798 for their fatherland did fall."

HOFWYL.

"THE most prolific source of crime, sedition, and the blood shed on scaffolds, is the false education of the people.

"Labour is the great moralizer of man, and rural labour has this particular advantage, that the property which it acquires, inspires a respect for the rights* of others."

These (translated from his own language) are the maxims of Emanuel Von Fellenberg:—not of a demagogue, but of a nobleman, and who, if he were not, would with his soul have been noble although born the son of a peasant.

Hofwyl, the scene of M. Von Fellenberg's philanthropic experiments, is within less than one hour's brisk ride of Berne, and as I found

* Not meant to extend to assumed or despotic rights, but espect for person and property—not intended to convey the Agrarian meaning, which the wild Republicans of the present day in France, and the *workers* of New York, contemplate.

Lorenz' active Swiss horse and light *char-à-banc* would convey me at least over twice the ground that Torti with his Roman horses (as he called them) would drag the carriage, I engaged him further in my service, until we should all arrive at Neuchatel. We accordingly started together from the Crown, and passing through the barrier of Aarberg, left behind us the walls and towers of Berne, then crossed the Aar, and on the road branching into two, I directed Lorenz to take that leading to Hofwyl,—knowing well that we should be at Aarberg in time enough, as Torti, who seldom trotted forward faster than four miles an hour, always chose to halt two hours to bait his horses.

We soon arrived at one of the most interesting scenes of intelligent industry in the world, situated in one of the most beautifully rural spots in Europe. The buildings are chiefly on the brow of a hill—the Jura chain sheltering them from the northern blasts. The inferior mountains extend to the east, and the eternally snow-clad Alps appear beyond them in the distance. On one side lies the water of the *Buchsee*,

a clear picturesque stream—on the other rises and extends the wood of Grauholz. Such is the situation of Hofwyl, the seat of the patrician family of Fellenberg, and of its present representative, to whom the property and that of *Meinchen-buschee* adjacent belongs.

Von Fellenberg had early in life remarked the extreme profligacy of the poor in the Swiss Cantons, and the moral superiority of those who, like the pastoral people of the Alps, live comparatively independent in their means—while pauper children, especially in the towns, were invariably brought up in ignorance and vice. He was by constant and vigilant observation led to the conclusion that the most effectual way to make people better, was to make them comfortable. That morality and comfort through life are to be most effectually secured by bringing up children from early years in habits of industry, and, at the same time, that the best education for them was to cultivate their minds with a view to virtuous conduct, and to useful purposes.

With this philanthropic object steadily in view

the excellent Von Fellenberg commenced the rudiments of his plan for educating pauper children. The great principle of his plan—useful and intelligent labour—* was grounded on the fact, that the greatest portion of mankind must live by labour, and, consequently, that those who are habituated to labour from childhood, are the happiest of the working classes. He began by essaying what could be done with one poor orphan. He then appropriated two large farms, the one as a practical *ferme modele*, the other to the purposes of new experiments in agriculture. The children taken, after the first successful experiment, were chiefly from the mendicant poor of Berne, who led a life not dissimular to that of gypsies. The principle first attended to, was to treat the children with uniform kindness, and as rational beings, by

* A man may be industrious with little intelligence. He who makes only one part of a watch, or of a steam engine, probably understands nothing of the principles of machinery. At Hofwyl the object is to teach the scholars to depend on their own ingenuity and knowledge as agriculturists; that they may mend or make the wooden work, if not the iron work of a plough, harrow, or rake, if necessary.

which means their affections and confidence were won and secured. M. Von Fellenberg observing that in case of misconduct an unsatisfactory reason was always uttered with confusion of manner, took advantage of this natural symptom of misconduct, and established the rule of asking the children to give reasons for what they did; this became in practice an excellent regulator of conduct. He laid down also, as a second principle, that no humiliating chastisements should be inflicted, and that none of the ordinary means of encouragement should be adopted—that there should be neither high nor low in the classes—no prizes—no medals—no whippings—increasing the tasks during the hours allotted for recreation forming the sole punishment. The children are allowed to justify themselves with perfect liberty of speech, and are heard with patience, and reproved with tenderness of language that produces gratitude, allays angry feelings, and prevents the deceit which severity ingenders. M. Von Fellenberg's plan specially embraces the uniting with useful labour, those amusements which unbend the minds, and gladden the hearts

of youth, to unite liberty with established rules of property and order, and to prepare all for their avocation through after life, and for their intercourse with the world, in whatever sphere they may be employed. In cases of misconduct, pointing out calmly to a child its errors in private, is admirably conceived. The early feelings of tenderness are thus not wounded, the angry temper is not irritated, the child is not excited to contradiction by the vanity of appearing in spirited opposition in presence of its schoolfellows, silent reproof impresses deep self-regret and virtuous conviction, while open degradation renders the feelings callous, and gives birth to artful inventions to deceive the master and the schoolfellows of the delinquent. M. Von Fellenberg's triumphant success for thirty-four years, on his own responsibility, and for a long time opposed by the advocates of established practices, proves also that his maxim is much better, to rid a school of an unreclaimable boy, rather than enforce a system of public castigation.

These principles comprise the leading rules of

the plan on which M. Von Fellenberg commenced, and which he has put in practice with such eminent honour to himself and such benefit to his fellow creatures. Few men however have encountered more malicious opposition. To annihilate his reputation, he was designated an underminer of order, of established customs, and of religion, —a mad enthusiast, an ambitious character, who with a view to power, aimed at political distinction—these were the epithets bestowed on him by the aristocrats of his country. He however persevered : the good cause prevailed— he extended his plan and then established a normal school, but the worthy oligarchs of Berne passed a law for its suppression. The people were roused in consequence, the law was rescinded, leaving, however, the nomination of the director of the school to the Government, whose tool he became and exercised his functions so designedly improperly, that he has been expelled.

I did not see M. Von Fellenberg—he was for the moment absent—but all the information I required was communicated to me; every arrangement explained, every operation and experiment

pointed out and elucidated by the superintendants, or teachers. To the two farms are attached workshops for making all kinds of agricultural implements on the most approved models, and an admirable institution which is devoted to the theory and practice of agriculture. Here also is a museum in which plants are classified according to their utility, not scientifically, but with their stalks, roots, leaves, flowers, and seeds: also specimens of most kinds of wood, and of birds, reptiles, quadrupeds, &c., prepared by the boys. These collections afford at once instruction and amusement. The winter evenings are spent in this room by the poor children with their master the good Werhli, and on Sundays after divine service they go forth to the hills and woods in search of whatever may enrich their museum.

One hundred pauper boys, and the same number of pauper girls* are wholesomely fed and warmly clad at the expense of Von Fellenberg. They cultivate the largest farm to remunerate

* Von Fellenberg's sister has the girls, under her special charge, taught by competent matrons. I have just learnt that Werhli has been engaged by the government to conduct a very extensive new establishment.

him in some degree for their maintenance and instruction; and their parents, or those who have had them in charge agree that they shall remain until the age of maturity; by which arrangement they acquire the habit of sober industry, and understand how to appreciate the value of labour, before they leave Hofwyl to begin the world on their own responsibility. About ten hours in summer are spent in labour and in agricultural instruction in the fields; and one hour, (a short time it is true, but sufficient) is devoted to school instruction, which includes, not only reading, writing and calculation, according to the system of Pestalozzi, but also a knowledge of plants, animals, earths, chemical phenomena, &c. In bad weather they work within doors: the boys are instructed by carpenters, joiners, and blacksmiths, in making various articles useful in cottages and on farms; the girls in knitting, carding, spinning, plaiting straw, &c.

Their assiduously vigilant and kind head-master, Werhli, under the special direction of Von Fellenberg, keeps a journal of all that regards each child, from the moment of its admission,

noting its natural disposition, character, religious, moral, and intellectual progress, and its application to labour.

To develope and maintain a spirit of cheerfulness with active alertness, is an object of the first consideration with Werhli. He never speaks to them but smilingly, and in tenderly kind expressions. He works, he sleeps, he converses, and sings with them. Labour and order thus wisely persevered in, overcome all the moral obstacles of perverse early habits: such has been the effect of this admirable plan, that the children of the most vagabond beggars collected here and there from the abodes of misery, are trained and reclaimed without the least occasion for corporal chastisement.*

* Those who advocate floggings in the army and navy of Great Britain, might learn wisdom and humanity from a greater man than the best of them, the tutor of the pauper children of Hofwyl—

The following passage relative to the punishing of children, from Rousseau, is forcibly illustrative of the evil practice.

"I was one day studying alone in a chamber contiguous to the kitchen; the maid had put some of Mademoiselle Lambercier's combs to dry by the fire; when she came to fetch them, she found the teeth of one of them broken; who could be suspected of this havoc? None besides myself had entered the room, they ques-

Besides the establishment for the children, there is an agricultural school in theory and practice

tion me; I deny having touched the comb, M. and Mademoiselle Lambercier consult, exhort, press, threaten; I persist obstinately, but conviction was too strong, and carried it against all my protestations, though this was the first time they caught me in so audacious a lie. The affair was thought serious; it deserved it. The wickedness, the lie, the obstinacy, were thought equally worthy of punishment; but this time it was not Mademoiselle Lambercier that inflicted it. My uncle Bernard was written to; he came; my poor cousin was charged with another crime not less serious; we were taken to the same execution.

"They could not force from me the acknowledgement they sought: I was immoveable. I would have suffered death, and was resolved on it. Force itself was obliged to yield to the diabolical infatuation of a child; for no other name was given to my constancy. In fine, I came out of this cruel trial in pieces but triumphant.

"It is now near fifty years since this adventure, and I am not afraid of being in future punished for the same fact; well! I declare in the face of heaven I was innocent, that I neither broke, nor touched the comb, that I never came near the fire, nor ever thought of it

"I had not reason enough to feel how much appearances condemned me, and to put myself in the place of others; I kept to my own, and all I felt was the rigour of a dreadful chastisement for a crime I had not committed. The soreness of my body, though violent, I scarcely felt; I only felt indignation, rage, and despair. My cousin, in almost a like case, who had been punished for an involuntary fault as a premeditated act, grew furious by my example and raised himself in a manner to unite with me. Both in the same bed embraced each other with convulsive transports; we were

for boys of the middle and higher classes: these scholars receive a superior education, in mechanics, natural history, and agriculture, on a principle of utility, in which art, science, and literary education are combined. The trades useful in connection with agriculture, the German, English, French, and Italian languages, are taught, and also music, natural history, gymnastic exercises, the use of fire arms and the bow and arrow, to lend cheerful amusement to the more solid studies.*

The normal school, or school for preparing village schoolmasters, is perhaps in extensive usefulness equal, if not superior to either of the others; the masters taught there have now (1834) more than eight thousand children under their care in various parts of Switzerland.

In all its divisions of instruction and labour,

suffocated, and when our young hearts, a little eased, could breathe out their indignation, we sat up in our bed, and began both of us crying out, an hundred times, with all our force, Carnifex! Carnifex! Carnifex!

"This was the end of my childish serenity. From this moment I ceased to enjoy pure happiness, and I feel even at this instant the remembrance of the charms of childhood stops there."

* There are about twenty English boys, besides Swedes, Russians, and Germans in this school.

Hofwyl, if not perfection, has the aspect of greater harmony than any institution that I have had the fortune to know. Here are children of various christian denominations, yet religion creates no dissensions. The worship of God is taught by the respective clergymen, chiefly by tracing the beneficence of the deity in his works, and by prayers of adoration and thanksgiving, with hymns and patriotic songs. Vocal and instrumental music are taught with equal liberality. The great end of Von Fellenberg is to render mankind useful and happy—his name will descend to posterity not as the patrician, but as the great patriarchal school-master, with more honour and renown than that of any oligarch or conqueror. The best man is he who does the most good and the least injury to the human race. Conquerors massacre their species, feudal lords degrade and starve them out of existence—Emmanuel Von Fellenberg, with his own property, feeds the hungry and clothes the naked, reclaims the vicious, and instructs the ignorant—allowing them what the Kings of Prussia and the Herzogs of Germany do not, to think and learn and act according to the free exercise of their reasoning faculties.

AARBERG.

We drove from Hofwyl by a picturesque road through an interesting agricultural country, embellished with belts of wood, vines, cherry and other fruit trees, and joined my party at the Crown, in the little town of Aarberg. The people in the square before the *auberge* were actively engaged in preparing huge butts for the vintage; and this being on the high post road from Germany to the south of Switzerland and Italy, carriages were incessantly arriving during the time we rested to bait the horses. The landlady of the Crown is said to be the fattest woman in Switzerland—with the exception of the walrus and whale, she certainly seems one of the greatest masses of living blubber.

Signor Torti appeared to day as taking an unusual licence; he was not exactly drunk, but

in that happy state which sailors term half-seas over. He had, however, although he had drank his brandy and kirchwasser raw, always an eye to money-saving. He spent an hour in trying to barter one of his worn-out Roman horses for a strong Swiss quadruped. Not being able to accomplish this, he bought the animal; I forget whether he managed to sell his own, but he put the patience of all to the stretch, by losing more than half an hour disputing with the smith about the price of putting a shoe on one of his other cattle. Nothing certainly can be more tiresome than travelling with the horses of a *Vetterino*; and although he manages to arrange better for you, and at less cost at the inns, the time lost at places where you least wished to remain, and the slow progress you make on the roads, greatly overbalances every other consideration in this tortoise mode of being dragged over the country.

I left my party for them to travel direct to Neuchatel, and Lorenz with his untireable horse drove me through the Canton of Friburg to the battle field of

MORAT.

HERE the Burgundians were routed with the most terrible slaughter, on fair battle ground, for the Swiss had not the advantage of so commanding a pass as at Mortgarten.

The celebrated Ossuary of bones and the chapel constructed by the Swiss to remind their children of the patriotic valour of their ancestors, were destroyed in 1798 by the French, who in their progress into Switzerland and Germany, demolished every object which marked the discomfiture of their armies in former wars. The bones have nearly all disappeared—the bleaching of centuries adapted them so well for knife handles that the postilions carried them off whenever they passed. Sculls and other bones are still to be found, but I felt no inclination to search for them; nor did I, as Lord Byron had done, "venture to bring away of these relics, as much as may have made the quarter of a hero."

An obelisk has been erected by the Canton of

Friburg, in 1822, to commemorate the victory of Morat in 1376.*

The town, above the field, is of little importance in itself, although well built, and the houses have arcades like those of Berne; but in the vicinity, numerous Roman coins and antiquities are found, and Avenches—near the lake, was the ancient Aventicum, the Roman capital of Helvetia.

As we drove round the bottom of the lake by a bad road leading over an alluvial bottom, there were several boats fishing for sheat-fish *Silurus Glanis* which, and the sturgeon (*Acipenser Sturio*) are the largest species of European fresh water fish; they abound also in the lakes of Neuchatel and Bienne.

Some time after joining the main highway, we turned off to the right, and drove from Ellash over the banks of the picturesque lake of Bienne,

* There is a Linden tree near the spot, planted to commemorate the battle, said to be one hundred and forty-eight years old; and another at Friburg, said to be planted about three hundred years ago. On the eminence of Villars, above the field of Morat, there is a Linden from which, in 1550, Ebel says, "all the bark was peeled, and it now measures thirty-six feet French (thirty-eight English) in diameter, and is ninety feet in height.

until we came opposite the little romantic Island of St. Pierre,

This classic rural spot, to which Rousseau was exiled by the Government of Berne, and which he has so celebrated in his "Confessions," rises one hundred and twenty-two feet in romantic beauty above the surface of the lake. We crossed over in a boat. It is little more than half a mile long, and not a quarter in breadth, yet it has a high hill, and a valley and several undulations, with woods, vineyards, a pasture, an orchard, and the house in which resided the unaccountable philosopher.

The chamber which he occupied remains as he left it; there is the bed on which he slept—the chairs on which he sat—the table at which he ate—and the one on which he wrote.

I do not know that I have been more pleased with anything that he has written than the following passages, which I translate from his "Reveries of a Solitary Walker."

"Of all the habitations in which I have dwelt (and I have had delightful ones), I know of none in which I have been so truly happy, or any that

I have left with so much tender regret as the Islet of St. Pierre, in the centre of the lake of Bienne. This little Island, called at Neuchatel the Isle of La Motte, is little known even in Switzerland. No traveller, that I know of, takes notice of it. It is, nevertheless, most agreeably and singularly situated for the happiness of a man who wishes to contract himself; for though I, perhaps, am the only one whose destiny makes it imperative, I cannot think I am the only one that has so natural a fancy, though, at present, I never saw it in any other.

"The banks of the lake of Bienne are more wild and romantic, and not less pleasing, than those of the Lake of Geneva, because the rocks and woods border nearer on the waters. Though agriculture and vineyards are less abundant, cities and houses less frequent, there are more natural verdure, more meadows and retreats shaded by groves, more frequent contrasts, and accidents more reconcileable. As these happy banks have no great roads convenient for carriages, the country is not much resorted to by travellers; but it is more engaging to a contemplative soli-

tary man, who is fond of expatiating at leisure on nature's charms, and of retiring to a solitude which no sound disturbs, except the cry of eagles, the warblings of birds, and the rolling torrents which break from the mountains. This beautiful bason, in form almost oval, has, in its centre, two little isles; the one, inhabited and cultivated, is about half a league in circumference; the other, smaller, is uninhabited and uncultivated, and will be at last destroyed by the incessant conveyance of earth, to repair the devastation caused by waves and tempests in the other. 'Tis thus the substance of the weak is always employed to the profit of the strong.

"There is but one house on the island, but it is large, agreeable, and convenient. It belongs, as well as the island, to the hospital of Berne. Here the steward, with his family and servants, lives. He has abundant poultry, dove-houses, and fish-ponds. The island, though so small, is so diversified in its soil and aspect, that it presents every kind of site, and is capable of any sort of culture. It has fields, vineyards, woods, orchards, rich pasturage, shaded by

thickets, and surrounded by shrubs of all sorts, whose green is preserved by the neighbouring waters: a lofty terrace, planted with two rows of trees, runs along the whole length of the island, and in the middle of this terrace a pretty room has been built, where the inhabitants of the neighbouring shores assemble and dance, during the vintage, on Sundays.

"'Twas in this island I took refuge on the dilapidation at Motiers. I found the abode so charming, I led a life so agreeable to my humour, that I resolved to end my days there, and had no other uneasiness than that I should not be suffered to execute this project, which did not agree with that of taking me to England, the first effects of which I then began to experience. Amidst the surmises which troubled me, I could have wished that they had made this asylum my perpetual prison; that they had confined me there for life; and that, in depriving me of all power and hope of quitting it, they had forbidden me every communication with any other place; so that, ignorant of all that passed in the world, I should have lost the remembrance

of its existence, and that mine would have been forgotten.

" I was suffered to pass two months only on this island, but could have passed two years, two ages, and all eternity, without a moment's regret, though I had, besides my housekeeper, no other society than that of the steward, his wife, and his servants, who were all, in fact, very good people, and nothing more; but it was precisely that which I wanted. I reckon these two months the happiest part of my life; and so happy, it would have sufficed for my whole existence, without giving birth in my mind, a single instant, to the desire of another state.

" Of what sort, then, was this happiness, and in what consisted its enjoyment? I shall leave that to be divined by those of the present age, from the description of the life I led. Precious *far nienté* was the greatest and the principal of these enjoyments, which I wished to taste with all its delights; and all I did, during my stay, was, in effect, no more than the delicious and necessary occupation of a man devoted to an idle life.

" The hope that the utmost of their wishes

was to keep me in this lovely mansion, where I was willingly entangled, from whence it was impossible to get out without assistance, and without being perceived; where I could have neither communication nor correspondence but by the concurrence of the people who surrounded me;—this hope, I say, gave me that of ending my days there in greater tranquillity than those I had passed; and the idea of having time to arrange every thing at leisure, was the cause of my not beginning to arrange any thing. Removed there in haste, alone, and naked, I successively sent for my housekeeper, my books, my little equipage, which I had the pleasure not to unpack, leaving my boxes and trunks as when they were brought, and living in an habitation where I thought to end my days, as in an inn from which I should depart the next day—all things as they were, were so well, that to put them in order would be deranging all. One of my greatest pleasures was, particularly, to leave my books closely packed up, and to have no ink-stand. When annoying letters forced me to the pen, I borrowed, in ill-humour, the steward's

ink-horn, and hurried to return it, in the vain hope of having no more occasion to borrow it. Instead of dismal scribblings, and worm-eaten books, I filled my room with flowers, in my first fervor for botany, for which the doctor of Ivernois gave me a taste, which soon became a passion. Rejecting all works of labour, I indulged in the amusement which pleased me, and which was attended with no more trouble than an idle man desires. I undertook composing the "Flora Petrinsularis," and describing every plant in the island, without omitting one, with particulars sufficient to employ the remainder of my life. A German, it is said, has written a book on the zest of a lemon; I would have written one on every herb in the field, on every kind of moss on the trees, on each weed which adorns the rocks; in fine, I would not have left the hair of an herb, not a vegetable atom, but it should have been amply described. In consequence of this grand project, every morning, after breakfast, which we all took together, I set out, a magnifying glass in my hand, and my "Systema Naturæ" under my arm, to visit a part of the

island which I had divided for this purpose into small squares, intending to go over them, one after the other, in each season.

"Nothing is more singular than the raptures, the extacy I felt at every observation I made on the vegetable structure and organization, and on the action of the sexual parts in fructification, the system of which was then quite new to me. In two or three hours I returned loaded with a plentiful harvest, a stock of amusement for the afternoon, in case of rain. I employed the rest of the morning in going with the steward, his wife, and Theresa, to observe their labourers, and then generally setting to work with them; the people of Berne who came to see me, often found me perched on high trees, girt about with a sack I was filling with fruit, and which I afterwards let down by a cord. The exercise I made use of in the morning, and the good-humour inseparable from it, rendered the rest I enjoyed at dinner time very agreeable, but if it was too much prolonged, and that fine weather invited, I could not wait so long, and whilst they were still at table, I slipped away, ran

and jumped alone into a boat, which I rowed towards the middle of the lake, and there stretching myself in the boat at full length, with my face upwards, I let it gradually get into the stream at the water's pleasure, sometimes for several hours lost in thought, confused, but delicious, and which, without any constant or determined object, was nevertheless, in my opinion, an hundred times preferable to every thing the most charming I ever found in what is called pleasure. Often, when informed by the setting sun of the hour of return, I have been at such a distance from the Island as to be obliged to labour with all my might to get back before night. At other times instead of an excursion into the stream, I diverted myself by coasting the verdant banks of the Isle, whose limpid waters and cooling shades have often invited me to bathe. But my most frequent navigation was from the larger to the smaller Isle, to land and pass there my afternoon, sometimes in walks very circumscribed, amidst shrubs of every kind, and sometimes fixing myself on the summit of a sandy eminence, covered with turf, wild thyme,

flowers, and even clover, which had possibly been formerly sown there, and very proper for rabbits, which might there multiply in peace, and have nothing to fear, or nothing to spoil; I hinted this to the steward, who sent to Neuchatel for males and females, and we set forward in great pomp, his wife, one of his sisters, Theresa, and myself, to establish them in the little Island, which they began to stock before my departure, and where they doubtless prospered, if they were able to support the rigours of winter. The founding this little Colony was a holiday. The pilot of the Argonauts was not prouder than I, leading in triumph the company and the rabbits from the great Island to the small one; and I haughtily observed, that the steward's wife, who dreaded the water to excess, and always fainted on it, embarked under my command with confidence, without showing the least fear during our passage.

"When the lake was agitated, and prevented its navigation, I passed my afternoon in running over the Island, herbalizing on this and that side, seating myself sometimes in the most pleasing

and solitary retreats, to meditate at my ease; sometimes on the terraces and heights, to satisfy my sight with the magnificent and ravishing prospect of the lake and its shores, crowned on one side by neighbouring mountains, and on the other opening into rich and fertile plains, where sight was lost in the bluish distant Alps which overstretched and confined them.

"When dusk approached, I descended from the summits of the Isle, and seated myself on the borders of the strand, in some hidden retreat, where the noise of the waves and agitation of the waters, chasing from my soul every care, plunged it into delightful thought, and night stole often on me unperceived. The ebbing and flowing of these waters, their continued noise, but roaring at intervals, striking without intermission the eye and ear, fed in me the internal movement which thought had extinguished; and caused me to feel my existence with delight, and saved me the trouble of thinking. There arose, from time to time, a few weak and short reflections on the instability of worldly things, whose image was seen on the surface of the

waters, but such light impressions were soon done away by the even and constant movement which lulled me, and which, without any active concurrence of my soul, engaged me, however, to a degree, that, summoned by the hour and signal agreed on, I was unable to wrest myself from it without effort.

"After supper, when the evening was fine, we once more went to take a turn on the terrace, to breathe the air of the lake and the night. We rested ourselves under the pavilion, we laughed, we chattered, we sung some old songs, which at least equalled modern ones, and at last went to bed, contented with our day, and wishing such another on the morrow.

"This, setting aside unforeseen and unwelcome visits, was the manner I passed my time during my residence on this Island. Let people ask me now what was there so attracting as to cause in my heart that regret so violent, so tender, and so lasting, that, at the end of fifteen years, it is impossible to think on this lovely habitation without each time being transported by rapturous desire."

We landed from this delightful spot, which still retains all the picturesque beauty and charming solitude which Rousseau so poetically describes, and drove on, enjoying beautiful views, to Neuchatel, where I arrived and ensconced myself in comfort within the Falcon, some time before Torti's horses appeared in the twilight, plunging along the streets with the carriage. On alighting, all were more than prepared for an excellent dinner, served up at a very short notice by the landlord.

NEUCHATEL.

HERE we are at the foot of the Jura, under the sovereignty of Prussia, in a principality of mountains, valleys, rocks, woods and waters. Neuchatel, or Neunberg, has had many masters —Helvetians, Romans, Burgundian kings, German emperors,—then its own feudal tyrants,—then Austrians,—then back again to the lords of Burgundy; after which, as a confederated canton with sovereign dukes of France for princes, it abolished Catholicism, at the word of that ardent preacher William Farel, when convents and their properties were confiscated, the churches seized, and all catholic images thrown down. It continued with the Princes of Orleans, Longueville, and Nemours as its sovereigns until their family became extinct in 1777, when thirteen pretenders appeared and vanished, and Frederick III. of Prussia was declared sovereign of Neuchatel and Vallengin, as an independent state.

Napoleon took it from Prussia in 1806, and gave it to his companion in arms Alexander Berthier, whom he created Prince of Neuchatel. In 1813, it came again under the Prussian sovereignty; and in 1831, an insurrection broke out declaring it a republic. This revolt was crushed, and the townspeople now tell you that they were happy under Marshal Keith, the viceroy of Frederick the Great, — were mildly governed under Berthier,—and are justly treated by the present King of Prussia.

This town is delightful in its situation and the noble prospects it commands of waters, woods, and alps. The view from the mountains of Chaumont, two leagues from the town, is said to be one of the most extensive in Switzerland. It seems less frequented by English travellers than I expected, but it is somewhat out of the great beaten route, and that is a sufficient reason.

Education, especially primary instruction, is liberally diffused. Neuchatel may well be proud of its gymnasium, and numerous schools, as well as of many benevolent institutions. The citizens

are said to be, like the French, much given to pleasure. That this may be the case, is possible enough; but there is at least great appearance of industry and comfort in the town, and, as far as I have seen, in the canton. The vintage this year is most abundant, and other crops generally productive; manufactures seem also in a thriving condition.*

We could willingly have remained here a week longer enjoying the delicious promenades, and rambling up the valley of the impetuous Seyen to Valengin, and I wished to have made an excursion up the vale of the Jura Reuss, to see the

The natives of Neuchatel who have gone adventuring to seek fortunes in other climes, have seldom forgotten the place of their birth. David Puri, who by integrity, industry, and enterprise, amassed immense wealth in England and Lisbon as a merchant, left on his death in the latter city, his fortune of about two hundred thousand pounds sterling to be expended in public instruction and in building a commodious town-house in his native city. Colonel Meuron bequeathed it his museum collected in various regions. Pourtales left seven hundred thousand francs to found the hospital which bears his name. The Savings Bank here receives sums as small as five batz, and not more than one hundred and fifty francs per annum, from any; paying three and a-half per cent interest. The manufactures of watches here and at Locle, and Chaud de Fond, deserve attention.

lace-makers of Motiers, and even the house from which the fanatics pelted Rousseau out of their country, the same in which he wrote his famous *Lettres-de-la-Montagne*.* The season was however too far advanced. We had Italy in view: Doctor Scott's health had been shaken within the last few days, and easy journeys became necessary. We arranged accordingly to make Geneva a resting place for sometime before we attempted to cross the Simplon.

It was also plain to me, that however much I might digress from the direct road during fine weather, as the days were decreasing in length and the decline of autumn coming on, it would not be prudent for me to be a day absent from my wife or friends, none of whom could accompany me over rugged paths; therefore to complete as far as possible my acquaintance with Switzerland, I resolved now that the weather was

* Even the powerful protection of Frederick, and of the Marshal Keith, were insufficient to shelter Rousseau from the fury of zealots. They called him antichrist—flung stones at him in the streets, and the mob finally attacked his house, throwing large stones through the windows and doors and through the roof, until he was saved by the military.

still remarkably fine, to make the most of n to
hour, while Torti's horses crawled on wit· ble
carriage by way of Yverdun and Lausan..e dnce
to Geneva. as

THE STEAM-BOAT.

The iron-built steam-boat which traverses the lake of Neuchatel, makes excursions also by the canal-like rivers of communication to Bienne and Morat. I started by this conveyance early in the morning for Yverdun. It was calm, the sky was bright, and the lake transparent, with numerous fishing and ferry-boats on its surface; and the scenery, especially that of the Jura, was grand. Colombier, once the favourite residence of Marshal Keith, is a delicious nook, and those who love retirement might find a hundred spots where they could live amidst picturesque solitude. An iron vessel, propelled by steam, floating between the Alps and the Jura! What a triumph in the progress of human invention!—and what next? Steam carriages rolling over the Simplon and the St. Gothard,—not impossible nor unlikely.

This is a graceful and swift vessel. In her

neat cabin are several books, all useful. The everlasting "Penny Magazine" in French and in German, bound in volumes;—*La Suisse Picturesque*, in numbers;—pamphlets on agriculture, and on manufactures; and a Guide to Switzerland. There has been no regular breakfast, or dinner prepared; the steward said, that he had *Côtelettes du mouton* and *Bifteck* ready to dress, and about ten o'clock he brought me a beefsteak and potatoes very well cooked, and also a pint bottle of Neuchatel ale, which was perfection.

YVERDUN TO LAUSANNE.

We landed on a marshy alluvion at Yverdun about eleven. Several vehicles were in waiting. A poor woman, with her son, had one—a sort of foundered chariot, which her son drove. Our passengers turning it into ridicule, and all of them, except myself, having engaged carriages, the poor woman, who was a widow, sobbed. The conduct of three young Englishmen, on this occasion, was unfeeling and disgraceful. Fellows who arrogated the name of gentlemen, but who richly deserved a sound drubbing, which I heartily wished the widow's son and some of the boatmen had inflicted. The young men I allude to were dressed in *blouses*, like the butchers' frocks in London, and had each a double-barrelled fowling piece. Seemingly they were going a shooting, and were attended by a servant, in gold and purple livery, carrying their bags and a basket.

I engaged the afflicted widow's son with his crazy-looking, but, as it proved, strong chariot; and after visiting the chateau now occupied by an extensive branch of the Cantonal institution of Pestalozzi, left Yverdun, an active place with courteous inhabitants, and which has, besides the above, several schools, a public library, museum, hospital, an institution for the deaf and dumb of the town and country, and cotton, with some other, manufactories, &c., although its population does not exceed four thousand.

The Canton of Vaud from the lake of Neuchatel, to that of Geneva forms an interesting agricultural country, diligently cultivated. We travelled by a new road leading through Eschallons; and as we attained the height, some miles further on, the lake of Geneva, especially its romantic heights towards Meillerie and Chillon, with Mont Blanc towering gloriously over Savoy, burst suddenly into full view, and formed a magnificently sublime landscape.

In half an hour after we were rolling over the abrupt streets of Lausanne.

GIBBON'S HOUSE AND LIBRARY.

After dinner I walked out, conducted by the commissioner, and visited Gibbon's house. It is exactly such a residence as I would have chosen—sufficiently retired to be tranquil, and near enough to human beings not to be solitary, with accommodations for all the comforts that a moderate man could require; with a fine terrace, and a large garden, and a sublime view of lake and mountains, fruitful verdure and stupendous rocks. The scenery alone would call forth grandeur and wisdom in the ideas of even a far less gifted man than Edward Gibbon.

There was a placard in the coffee-room of the Golden Lion, stating, that Gibbon's library was for sale; I flew thither, the wreck remained, and I only purchased a few books, which I was convinced were his, although it was ungallant to suspect that the beautiful Mademoiselle *

* Whose father had the disposal of the Library.

(who came into the room, on the servant who attended not knowing how the books were disposed) should say that any were genuine that were not. I, however, made sure of a Suetonius, with Gibbon's arms and handwriting, and with his pencil marks on several pages referred to in the "Decline of the Roman Empire." It is an Amsterdam edition, elegantly printed, in 1697, with fine engravings of heads, medals, &c.

[illegible]

LAUSANNE.

This cantonal capital covers a far more irregular craggy hill than that on which old Edinburgh stands, and never were streets more tiresome than these, but stray a hundred yards from the town and you are amidst orchards, vineyards, and cornfields.

Its college, its schools, its philanthropic institutions, and the public spirit of this town and canton have greatly interested me; particularly when I consider that little more than thirty years ago, the whole of Vaud was a fief belonging to Berne*; and that one hundred and fifty years ago there was not one shop in the country. Its

* Some of the old laws laid down in the charter of Mouden in 1359 and long in practice, are curious; the fines were taken care to be chiefly paid to the feudal lords, as

"Sixty sols to be paid to the seigneur for striking another with an offensive arm," under its feudality to Berne.

"Gluttons, or gourmandes, to be fined for each offence ten

rapid prosperity is mainly owing to the revocation of the edict of Nantes, which drove a multitude of industrious and intelligent French Protestants to Switzerland, who settling chiefly in the country of Vaud, carried thither their habits of thrift and their manufacturing and agricultural skill.

Besides lounging in book and print shops I visited the college, academy, public library, museum, and the cantonal hospital and workhouse, all worthy of a traveller's attention.

The *bazar Vaudois* is another lounge for travellers and idlers, exhibiting what the inscription on its front expresses. "*Exposition permanente et vente à prix fixe de toute espèce de produits de l' Industrie, des Sciences et des Arts.*" It is a vast dépôt containing an endless variety of articles made of wood, iron, glass, paper, and precious metals and stones. Many of these are

florins, women half that sum, Ecclesiastics and public functionaries to be dismissed from their places.

"Dancing is a scandal, and interdicted under penalty of three florins for each offence, three full days of dancing to be allowed on the occasions of weddings only."

manufactured by the ladies of the canton to be sold for benevolent purposes. It is open every day, even on Sunday, for three hours, to the public.

The Cathedral is a huge, gothic structure, built, it is said, in the tenth century, and filled with tombs and monuments, among which, as well as in the cemetery, are an astonishing number of English names. Many of the tombs are curious, especially that of Pope Felix V, who abdicated the *tiara* in this cathedral, and those also of several barons and bishops, and of a Russian princess. That erected by Sir Stratford Canning in memory of his wife, who died so young, is a beautiful specimen of Canova's sculpture. The following sentence of the inscription on this tomb is most tenderly affecting: "*Une fièvre l'ayant attaquée pendant ses couches elle est morte l'onzième mois de ses noces.*"

They say this cathedral has a thousand pillars and that formerly it was one of the richest in Europe. The Reformation, however, plundered it of every ornament except the architecture and the tombs.

The late revolutionary movements have settled down in peaceful security. by extending the elective privilege and legislative power to nearly all the resident inhabitants. Considering this state of political liberty, it seems unaccountable, that a law should have lately been passed against the Momiers, or Methodists, worthy of the Days of Praise God Barebones. But the Protestants of Lausanne have always been renowned for religious intolerance and puritanical rigidity. Dancing, theatres, and convents, were considered shameful and wicked. At present, however, all these amusements are permitted, and society is said to be much more agreeable than formerly. But opinions on this subject differ. Picot, a Genevese says in his Statistics of Switzerland, "*La beauté du site de Lausanne et l'amabilité de ses habitans lui attirent un grand nombre d'étrangers*"—and M. Martin, a Frenchman, says "*Chaque année Lausanne est envahie par une nuée d'Anglais qui viennent économiquement y passer la belle saison, et qui, n'ont pas peu contribué à répandre dans les réunion cette froideur, ce flegme qu'on rencontre dans les sociétés de Londres.*"

A cloud of English invading Lausanne on the score of economy! Why, Monsier Martin, you are like the Baron Haufez, and nearly all Frenchmen, perfectly ignorant of the structure of English society, and the motives which send the English travelling annually over the Continent. The expenses of living and the prices of nearly every article of food are as high at Lausanne as in London, and the cost of the annual trip *economiquement* to pass the *belle saison* at Lausanne, that is if they eat, drink, sleep at night, and pay also for post horses, or even for being conveyed in diligences, will alone require more money than would support them the whole year in much greater comfort in England.*

Dutchmen, Germans, Russians, Danes, and Swedes, have generally correct ideas of English customs, manners and propensities; but the French, who travel less in foreign countries than most Europeans, and, still accustomed, as

The distance from London to Lausanne is about six hundred English miles. Suppose a family of four persons and one servant only travels from London to Lausanne and back, and that they have their own carriage, for in the latter case five individuals can

86263

Voltaire observes in a letter to Hume, "to ridicule all that is not customary among themselves," form the most erroneous conclusions respecting the English nation. Among whom, however, the ostentatious rich ignorant — Lord Byron's

travel cheaper than by diligence, the lowest expense will be as follows :—

	£.	s.	d.
London to Boulogne, including freight of carriage	8	13	0
Boulogne to Paris, 31½ posts.....	10	3	4
Paris to Geneva—65½ ditto	26	4	0
Geneva to Lausanne per steam	3	2	0
	£48	2	4
Ten days on the road; beds 2 francs each, breakfast, 3 francs, dinners 4 francs, tea or coffee say 1 franc, that is 10 francs each	16	0	0
Servant 5 francs, say 4 francs, per day.....	2	0	0
	£66	2	4
Double this amount to include returning home	132	4	8
Living two months in Switzerland, say 60 days at the very cheapest rate including a pint each of ordinary wine, 10 francs, and 5 francs for servant, per day	108	0	0
Total	£240	4	8

The above calculation is much below the actual expense, it includes nothing for stewards of steam-boats, landing at London and Boulogne, Commissioners of hotels, expenses at Paris, waiters, anything extra for good wines, excursions, &c., for all which an English family will find their expenses at least 150*l.* more than the above. If they go either by way of Rotterdam or Ostend, and then by the Rhine, the expenses of travelling will be found more than the above. Having travelled each route, I found that by Paris and Geneva the least expensive.

"travelling English"—afford, I am most ready to admit, the most ample scope for Parisian satire.

Lausanne appeared to me as if certainly invaded by the English. Every hotel was crammed with them; but they assuredly were not of the saving, but of the spending and restless class. Pleasure and variety, — not abstinence,—not economy—are their objects.

LAKE OF GENEVA.

" Lake Leman woos me with its crystal face."

Childe Harold.

" Mon lac est le premier."

Voltaire.

When Lord Byron was so wooed, his tiny cutter was the most dashing vessel on the splendid Genfer-see; and, in comparison, the bark of St. Preux must have been but a crazy craft.

But now two magnificent steam-packets, fitted up like floating-hotels, with every luxury, daily traverse and circumnavigate these beautiful and sublime shores. I walked down by a picturesque road amidst fruit-trees and handsome villas, to Ouchy, the port of Lausanne. Near the jetty was the majestic Winkelried ready to depart for Vevey. Her decks were crowded with fashionable-looking passengers of both sexes. I joined them. The day was charmingly bright, and neither too warm nor too cold, and I revelled in the enjoyment of splendid scenery, in

contemplating the triumphs of art, and in musing over the manners and hearing the inconsistent remarks of the multitude on deck. I looked over the vessel's side, while the snow-white foam, which dashed off the wheels, contrasted sublimely with the pellucid blue lake,—but was not disposed to say, with the moody Childe,—

> " Clear placid Leman, thy contrasted lake,
> With the wide world I dwell in, is a thing
> Which warns me with its stillness to forsake
> Earth's troubled waters for a purer spring."

I felt happy in the fortunate temperament of my own constitution and mind, which enabled me to enjoy the sumptuous feast which nature spread before me; and as the world and I have always agreed tolerably well, I had no reason to complain of its turbulence. I had both Childe Harold and the " Nouvelle Heloise " in my pockets; and as I dipped into some passages of the former, I never felt more for the sufferings of Byron, or regretted more the infirmities which beset his sublime soul. Would that it were true of him, even so far as he says—

" High mountains are a feeling—but the hum
Of human cities torture."

* * * * * *

" Are not the mountains, winds, waves, skies, a part
Of me and of my soul, as I of them ?"

You may certainly traverse all Rousseau's ground with the " Heloise " before you, and be struck as Lord Byron was, to a degree that he could not express, with the force and accuracy of his descriptions and the beauty of their reality.

In tracing the wanderings of Rousseau through his Confessions, in his reveries, and in his Heloise, you are equally struck with the force and adaptation of Lord Byron's sketch of him—

Here the self-torturing sophist, wild Rousseau,
The Apostle of Affliction, he who threw
Enchantment over passion, and from woe
Wrung overwhelming eloquence, first drew
The breath which made him wretched ; yet he knew
How to make madness beautiful, and cast
O'er erring deeds and thoughts a heavenly hue
Of words, like sunbeams, dazzling as they past
The eyes, which o'er them shed tears feelingly and fast.

His love was passion's essence—as a tree
On fire by lightning ; with ethereal flame
Kindled he was, and blasted ; for to be
Thus, and enamoured, were in him the same,

But this was not the love of living dame,
Nor of the dead who rise upon our dreams,
But of ideal beauty, which became
In him existence, and o'erflowing teems
Along his burning page, distempered though it seems."

We had almost every variety of character among our fellow passengers. Some of them were intelligent and communicative. Half, as usual, were English. An elderly lady, who talked of Lyme Regis and petrefactions, had a travelling companion in the form of a spectral young preacher, in a gallopping consumption. A well-fed man, who had come from Italy, and told woeful tales about the late disasters of the tremendous *lavanges* of the Simplon, seemed superlatively blest in his own good opinion, and in declaring that he had the resolution not to look at a newspaper for the last twenty years. Three men in Genevese gowns, and of Calvin's creed, were disentangling some tough knot of foggy divinity, and listened to by an audience of some twenty open-mouthed wonderers.

An English lady drew nearly as great a portion of observation. She had once been pretty in face, and was still elegant, although thin in

form, and the long fingers of both her somewhat sinewy hands were thickly decked with brilliant rings. She was evidently past the Rubicon of thirty. The picturesque had apparently no charms for her. A strippling of not twenty, whom she had, as it appeared, never seen before, engaged her attention — she fastened on him, and told him the prettiest things in the world.

Our approach to Vevey disturbed their prattle; on landing, they walked off together.

" The old maid will certainly seduce the boy," said the man who never read newspapers.

" I went to Vevey," says Rousseau, " to lodge at the Clef, and during the two days I remained saw no one. I formed an attachment for this town, which has haunted me in all my travels, and which made me establish in it the hero of my romance.

" I would say willingly to those who have taste and sensibility, go to Vevey, visit the country, examine the sites, sail on the lake, and then acknowledge that nature made this charming country for a Julia, a Clara, and St. Preux."

Vevey is, in truth, a delicious spot—the lake and the whole scenery sublime. The town was crowded, and I only stopped to see the black marble fountains, and to ascend, I hardly can give a reason why, to the church where the bones of Ludlow, one of our unhappy Charles's judges lie under a monument of black marble, and also those of Broughton who read that King's sentence.

I hired a *char-à-banc*, and on the most "anti-narcotic" of roads, drove first to the town of Peilz, Madame de Warens' birth-place, and then, with Rousseau and Byron as my guides, to

'Clarens! sweet Clarens, birth-place of deep love
Thine air is the young breath of passionate thought;
Thy trees take root in love; the snows above
The very glaciers have hid colours caught,
And sun-set into rose-hues sees them wrought
By rays which sleep there lovingly: the rocks
The pendant crags, tell here of love who sought
In them a refuge from the worldly shocks
Which stir and sting the soul with hope that woos, then mocks."

From the *Bosquet de Julie* we drove through Montreaux beneath and amidst vineyards, until

we descended to the frightful dungeon of Chillon. I had seen enough of those horrid places in Germany, and nothing but the associations which Byron called from its "vasty deep," would have induced me to have seen "all from the Potence to the Cachots," I re-ascended, disgusted with past ages, and delighted with the scutcheon of the Canton of Vaud painted on its walls, with the words *Liberté et Patrie*, announcing that the reign of *feudal justice* was for ever gone.

We drove on to Villeneuve, where I dined, and then struck off from the lake by way of Bex and its salt springs, to St. Maurice, where I slept. Early next morning we rode along the rapid Rhone, to the Pissé Vache, a remarkable gorge and waterfall which bursts among and over rocks. From thence we proceeded to Martigni, or Martinach, where I breakfasted. Here I was again beneath Alps and Glaciers, and on the road to the Simplon. I have seen, however, the boldest features of Switzerland, and will say nothing of places often described before. We returned by the road—a most romantic one

it is, leading on the south of the lake to Geneva, I halted at St. Gingo, and then at Meillerie, to see its stupendous rocks, by a cut through which the highway leads, and then drove on to Evian, a delightful place, where in an old chateau, with some feudal baron, Mr. Beckford tells us he once resided.

The *Pays de Vaud* looks like an eternally smiling amphitheatre from this spot; while Savoy, with less sun, would wear a thriving aspect, if the people—the squalid half-clad people —were not so wretched. They live under a despotic government, and are ridden by ignorant priests. No wonder that they are miserable and degraded.

At Evian I paid off my *char-à-banc* man, got into a boat, then crossed the lake where it is nearly a thousand feet deep, and landed at Morgues a little before the sun retired in rich splendor beyond the Jura.

This is another delightful spot; from which you have a view of the triple summit of Mont Blanc; near the town stands the Castle of Vuflens, celebrated in her "*Chateaux Suisses*"

by the authoress of Caroline de Litchfield, the celebrated Madame de Montolieu, who lately died at her residence near Lausanne.

I hired a man and two horses, and rode on enjoying fresh air and delicious views, to the Park of Prangin, embellished by Joseph Bonaparte, to whom it still belongs,—why does he not reside on the charming spot? Have the Holy Alliance any control over the place? I believe not. We then rode through Nyon and beneath vineyards to Coppet, the residence of Necker, and in the garden of this seat, lies buried his remains and those of his admirable wife. Madame de Stäel resided here for many years, and here, when he frequently visited her, Lord Byron said she was far more amiable than elsewhere. I gained admission into the house, and felt a kind of sacred reverence for the chambers inhabited by Corinne and by Necker. Her portrait, by David, hangs in one of the rooms.* The associations which arise on treading

* Madame de Stäel, who shed such enchanting lustre, although the Parisians accused her of *gaucheries*, over the society of Coppet, and that of her soirées, before her banishment from Paris, tyran-

the spots where dwelt those whose talents distinguished them, are not the least delightful to those who wander around the shores of this lake. I walked to Secheron where also Byron and the Shelleys used to delight in each other's society. I believe Mrs. Marcet is living near this place, if not in the vicinity of Lausanne. Opposite is

nized over some of the most splendid ornaments, even those she most rapturously loved, of her social circle.

Her love and vanity exhibited their strong contending passions in her bearing towards the excellent Benjamin Constant.

Her frequent allusions in her "Germany" to the charms of French conversation, "of a recital in the mouth of a man of sense and taste," are all written, with Benjamin Constant in her eye, as the *beau ideal* of those charms. His conversation certainly displayed the powers of sorcery. Madame de Staël loved him with fervent ardour. Her first husband, Baron de Staël Holstein appears to have been a pitiful wretch. Yet under his name Corinne had acquired her well merited celebrity, and that name her vanity would not relinquish for the truly more famous one of Constant.

Yet, when Benjamin Constant, whose honest pride spurned the idea of a secret marriage, allied himself to an accomplished lady of higher birth, and greater fortune, of the noble family of Hardenberg, the discreditable violence of Madame de Staël's mortification raged to such an extent of impropriety that, were it not well known, and generally spoken of at Geneva, we should discredit the whole as the fabrication of malicious envy. She afterwards found in the obscure Rocca, a person who willingly became her nameless husband.

Diodati; and I shall soon behold the excellent Sismondi at his country seat of Chêne. Ferney will occupy a day.

I reached Geneva on foot in the evening. The hotel de Bergues was full. It is too large, and I hate overgrown Inns; so I put up at the *Ecu de Geneve*. The second, but I think the best house. My friends had not arrived. My solitary excursions are finished—we must all go to Chamouni together.

EXCURSION TO CHAMOUNI.

ALTHOUGH Chamouni is only eighteen and a half leagues, or about fifty English miles from Geneva, the journey there occupies nearly two days.

To proceed thither we hired a strong roomy coach to carry us to St. Martin, or Salenches, from which no other carriage can proceed but *char-à-bancs*—we left Geneva early in the morning. The Salêve was enveloped in mist, the Jura looked blacker and higher than usual, and the day seemed to threaten bad weather; we were almost inclined to return: but I was convinced that the morning vapours of Switzerland always portend fine weather. So it turned out.

We had scarcely left the Canton of Geneva with its active industry, comfort and liberty, than we encountered a wretched people, lodged in hovels, clad in rags, and looking as if half

starved. The proportion of *Goitres* to the population is shockingly great. Cretins too are numerous and on the brow of each ascent you are assailed by the most loathsome diseased beggars in all Christendom: Ireland always excepted.

Yet the soil and the pastures of this part of Savoy until you pass Chêde, are equal to those below the Grindelwald of Berne, where health, affluence, and independence reigns.

The road follows the course of the Arve. At Bonnville where we breakfasted at a tolerable Inn the scenery assumes bold Alpine features. It was Sunday, and the people were grouped here and there about the doors, exhibiting in appearance nothing like the holiday animation and neat attire of the French peasantry—nothing like the robust health and gay costume of the Swiss cottagers. Ignorant from having scarcely any means of instruction,—dull from the priests forbidding dancing, and all the amusements that gladden the heart,—dispirited by the degradation of their social state,—squalid and unclean in their persons, and filthy and miserable in their habita-

tions, from the poverty to which they are consigned by circumstances, and not from the nature of the country they inhabit.

At Cluse, a village wedged in between hideous precipices, between which the Arve thunders down, the people are wretched in the extreme. Formerly they were employed in the various divisions of watch-making, which occupation during the long winters of the country, gave them as it now does to the inhabitants of the Jura, useful and profitable employment. This business has now nearly disappeared. Half the population, especially the women, who are most disgusting in appearance, with their open throats and breasts, are said to be (and they certainly appear to be so) Goitres. It is also computed that there is a *Cretin*, or idiot in each family.

It is remarkable that all accounts of Savoy describe the people happier and the country in comparison to the then state of France, far more improved than at present.*

In the journal of a traveller, who visited Switzerland, Chamouni, and other parts of Savoy, in 1787, he remarks "the inns in Savoy and Switzerland are cleaner than those of France; and

After passing the gorge of Cluse, the road leads along the Arve, below tremendous limestone precipices;—the deranged state of which exhibits the effects of having been subjected to violent disturbance. We pass two cascades resembling, but much smaller than the Staubach, and an elevated cavern, to which there is a giddy ascent, and in which there is a sort of café for refreshments. The valley opens to the right as we approach St. Martin, and on the left the pyramid of the lofty Varena rises above, nearly seven thousand feet almost perpendicularly. It had a most singular appearance as we reached

they also give you knives and forks, whereas in France you are expected to bring your knives with you." This remark as respects the inns still holds true, with the exception of the knives and forks, which they now give you I believe in every Inn in France, unless it be in some of the wild parts of Basse Bretagne, and la Vendée: but what follows certainly does not, "As we have now done with Savoy, I cannot help mentioning that it is a delightful country; the cottages are scarce but very neat." The annexed passage again holds true at this day — "the goitres prevail much; it is a great swelling on the neck like a wen, we observed many idiots, and there is such superstition prevails about them, that families do not think they flourish unless they have one among them, and they are consequently very kindly treated."

the hotel at St. Martin, which we preferred to that on the opposite side of the bridge at Salenges. A dense cloud belted the mountain, and the limestone culm of Varena rose above it, not unlike the Skellig rock as it elevates its pyramidical head out of the sea, off the south west coast of Ireland.

The Inn at St. Martin is a remarkably good one, and from its belvedere you have, perhaps, the best view that is anywhere to be obtained of the three summits of Mont Blanc. The opposite inn, by an absolute order of the Commandant of the Province, possesses the monopoly of *char-à-bancs* for Chamouni, and more travellers frequent it, in consequence, than that of St. Martin, of which we have, for civility, good fare, and comfortable beds, to speak with all due praise. The view of Mont Blanc at, and for some time after, sunset was sublime and splendid. About ten o'clock the moon rose brightly over it, and before midnight shed silver light over its summits. The pinnacles of the Varena and the neighbouring mountains, flinging their shades back and across, and into the

Arve, imparted also peculiar romantic grandeur to the scenery.

We started early on the following morning by two *char-à-bancs* for Chamouni—no other kind of wheeled vehicle having ever been attempted on the path. On reaching Chêde, where there is a bridge, waterfall, and small lake, the *sentier* becomes exceedingly steep, yet lined on each side with dwarf walnut, apple, barberry, wild damson, birch, and mountain-ash trees. At a spring near the lake stood, or rather stooped, a Crétin, dipping up water with a small glass jug, which he presented to each of us. We gave him a few batzen and passed on. The ascents and descents were now remarkably rough until we reached the valley of Servos, in the little village of which there is a mineralogical cabinet, well worth attention. It contains specimens of the geology and mineralogy of Mont Blanc, Chamouni, and the neighbouring Alps, arranged according to the system of Brogniart. Some of these polished, as well as some horns of the chamois worked into boot-hooks and walking-stick handles, we purchased. We then crossed the Arve over a crazy

bridge, near which were a herd of cattle, and goats on the crags and steeps. We ascended for two miles an abrupt path among rocks, here and there overhung with firs, and over a deep black ravine, through which, more than one thousand feet underneath, the Arve dashed furiously among the rocks. The *sentier* frequently approached within a few feet of the precipices. In one place where I got out of the *char-à-banc*, there is a huge granite rock partially covered with heather, from which I plucked some branches. It overhangs the gorge, and the view from its brink is certainly terrific. Opposite, Mount Brevent rose to an elevation of six or seven thousand feet, yet on its steep brows hung *chalets* at a most frightful height. We at length passed the foot of the Bossons, from which a rapid stream runs into the Arve; we rolled over it, and in half an hour we were at the door of the Union Inn of the Priory of Chamouni—we put up here. Dr. Scott and the ladies were much fatigued from the shaking and bumping of the *char-à-banc* over stones and the uneven parts of the road. They required some rest, and I started with

Joseph up the brow of the Flegere. From this mountain you completely overlook the Mer-de-glace, and have by far the most commanding view of Mont Blanc. The ascent is certainly difficult—we had frequently to halt and rest; at length, with the assistance of our mountain pikes, we reached the pavilion on a kind of table ground, forming part of the Flegere, or rather an extension of the Brevent. From this point the prospect overlooks not only the Mer-de-glace, the Bossons, Bois, and Argentière glaciers, but even commands a full view of the culms of those extraordinary peaks, the Aiguilles du Midi, du Plan, de la Blaittière, de Charmoz, de la Fourche, de Dru, and the Gout de Dôme; Mont Blanc, and the Alps to the east, as well as the Col de Balm. Beneath lies the long green valley of Chamouni with the Arve and its tributary Arveiron, flowing, like a furious stream of salt mixed with water, through it, and the houses looking no larger than dice scattered over the floor of a large saloon.

The descent was more fatiguing, particularly to the knee and ancle joints, than the ascent;

but we reached the inn in time for dinner, which was ordered at a late hour.

The night was remarkably cold. This was not to be wondered at, when the middle of autumn was gone by,—and our hotel, deep in the valley as it lay, was still three thousand three hundred feet above the level of the Mediterranean, and in the immediate face of eternal snows and glaciers; the latter on a level with our windows.

The scenery of Chamouni at night, while the moon shone brightly on the snowy summits eleven thousand feet above us, and on the iron-grey peaks, when all beneath lay black and hideous, was different in aspect from any landscape I had ever seen. It seemed to me, as I walked alone on the terrace, about eleven o'clock, after all had gone to bed, as if I were the last man in a desolate world, about to be consigned to the oblivion of a region in which neither heat, nor light, nor joy dwelt. I remained, contemplating the vast solitude, until the cold drove me shivering to my bed-room; and, although I had plenty of covering, it was nearly an hour

before I recovered my natural temperature. What a forlorn prison must this vale in all appearance be, during its dreary winter of nearly eight months, with snow for more than six, lying many feet over every part of its basin, slopes, and heights! Yet even at that season, the people of Chamouni, from its being a district not rich enough to be oppressed, nor so poor as to deny them sufficient maintenance, are among the very happiest peasantry of all Savoy. Their priest alone (evil befal such ghostly pastors!) denies them the pleasure of such amusements as would gladden the hearts of the young and cheer up the spirits of the aged.*

* Probably not one in a hundred in this wild district have ever travelled ten miles from the valley. They are fondly partial to its solitude. My wife being much pleased with the chambermaid, who wished for a situation at Paris, where her brother had gone, offered to hire her on the condition that she would engage for a whole year, and would make up her mind not to have the *mal du Pays*, and return before that period. Strange as it may appear she acknowledged, that she could not conscientiously say, that she might not. She gave us some curious accounts of the young people evading the priests forbidding them to dance, by resorting to some unfrequented place, and of his severity when they confessed these peccadillos. Mutual instruction we found forbidden in consequence of an order of the Government.

In winter, shut out from all the world, when the gorges of the Arve are choked up with impassable snow, the inhabitants usually remain within doors; their cottages are heated with large stoves, the fuel for which they bring down from the brows of the mountain, sliding it from the precipices over the frozen snow, which business in clear days, together with attending daily to the cattle which are housed and fed with the hay gathered during the short summer and autumn, forms the chief employment of the men. The women spin, knit, and weave coarse cloths for domestic use.

The weather in midwinter is usually clear: the temperature in the valley seldom below ten degrees Reaumur, but on ascending about two thousand feet the cold is insupportable, except by severe exercise. Chamouni, according to the accounts of the inhabitants, is subject in winter to terrible storms, especially from the east, when the wind blowing through the mountain gorges, and drifting the snow furiously along, sweeps the whole valley. The gales of early spring and late autumn are also described as blowing

with great violence, tearing the trees from the roots, unroofing and sometimes overturning the houses. In spring the torrents and the avalanches cause terrific devastation. The former roll down ice, rocks, earth and trees. The latter break forth, exploding like incessant thunder, covering the glaciers, and often part of the valley: tearing rocks, trees, and earth in their way. These phenomena are also common in the immediate vicinity of all the glaciers and eternal snow-clad Alps of Switzerland: but description renders them more terrific in Savoy, although from appearance some parts of the valley of the Sernft, in Glaris, and of the Grindelwald, seemed to me equally exposed to the same disastrous sublimities. Those who would become by description more satisfactorily acquainted with the phenomena and natural history of the Alps, must read the works of de Saussure, Bourrit, Pictet, Volenberg, and Meisner. Those who have no wish or leisure to consult those works, may, on the other hand, be content with a cursory notice of a few general observations.

The discovery, in 1741, of the valley of Cha-

mouni is justly attributed to the celebrated English traveller, Dr. Pocock, accompanied by Mr. Windham. It would seem that it was indistinctly known before then from the side of the Valorsine, as a terrific valley, and believed to be the resort of brigands and barbarians; but the deep gorges of the Arve, even that leading into the valley of Cluse, formed passes of the utmost terror and difficulty. Messrs. Pocock and Windham were consequently deemed fool-hardy adventurers when they departed from Geneva, although armed and accompanied by a band of hired defenders. They encamped at night, and ceding to the entreaties of their guides, would enter into none of the cabins then in the valley of Cluse. On reaching the gorge of Servoz, all the guards were seized with superstitious fear on observing the terrific pass that led to the "accursed mountains," (*montagnes maudites*) as those of Chamouni were then called. The intrepidity of the English travellers at length surmounted all obstacles, and they finally reached the glaciers and the foot of Mont Blanc. On their return the recital created both wonder and discredit. Two years

after, M. Baulac, a librarian of Geneva, resolving to be satisfied on the subject, penetrated the valley, and published his journey in the Swiss Mercury of that year. For seventeen years after, Chamouni was neglected. M. de Saussure, in 1760, made his first visit to Chamouni. M. Bourrit, chanter of the Geneva cathedral then gave an account of his excursion, and of the glaciers. The journeys and ascent of Mont Blanc by M. de Saussure excited the greatest curiosity, and from that period to the present day, the valley of Chamouni has been the frequent resort, not only of men of science, but of the curious of all nations.*

* In 1762, a first attempt to ascend Mont Blanc was made unsuccessfully by three chamois-hunters, in consequence of the encouragement held out by M. de Saussure.

In 1775, four Savoyards made a second unsuccessful attempt by the mountain de la Côte, along the side of the glaciers of the Bossons.

In 1783, three chamois-hunters, by the same route, ascended until they were so overcome with drowsiness as not to be able to proceed farther.

In the same year, M Bourrit made the attempt, but was met and compelled to return by a tempest.

In 1784, the same enterprising men, in September, attempted the route west of the Bossons, but cold and fatigue arrested their progress at a great height, and two chamois-hunters proceeded

In regard to the height of mountains, I am disposed to consider the altitude of Mont Blanc

even so much farther than the others, that they reached within about one hundred and fifty feet of the highest culm.

In 1785, M. M. de Saussure and Bourrit resolved if possible to reach the summit, and with fifteen guides they succeeded so far as to ascend the first night eight thousand five hundred and thirty-two French feet above the level of the sea. Here they constructed a tent and passed the night, and next day reached an elevation of eleven thousand four hundred and twenty-two feet, when the snow became so soft as to render further ascent impossible; the heat was also insupportable, although the thermometer was only two to five degrees Reaumur in the shade, and four to seven degrees in the sun.

In 1786, six men of Chamouni were tempted to renew the ascent. One of these, a remarkably hardy man, James Balmat, lost his way, and passed the night near the summit of the glaciers, and in the morning observed the culm at no great distance, and an easier way to its summit. His youth and vigour enabled him to descend to the valley. On the 7th of August following, he left Chamouni, accompanied by Dr. Pacard, and after most extraordinary efforts, they reached the highest point on the following day at 7 o'clock. After passing twenty hours among the snows and glaciers, they returned, after much suffering, to the village. Both their faces were dreadfully swelled: that of Dr. Pacard was for eight days so distorted as to be hardly recognised. In the same year, M. de Saussure accomplished his celebrated ascent. The succeeding attempts were--

Aug. 1787. The late scientific and ingenious Colonel Beaufoy, } of England
Aug. 1788. Mr. Woodley, }
Aug. 1809. Baron Doorthesen of Courland, and Mr. Fornerer of Lausanne.

in its latitude of nearly 46° North, as far as regards atmospheric elevation, almost as high as the tropical Chimborazo. Count Byland of Holland, whose agreeable acquaintance I made at Paris, has spent more than twenty years examining the natural history of mountains and volcanos. He illustrated very satisfactorily to me during our conversations on scientific subjects, various Alpine atmospheric phenomena. He also considered the rarity of the atmosphere on the culm of Mont Blanc much the same as on the summit of the highest Andes.

Sept. 1812. M. Rhodes, of Hamburg.
Aug. 1818. Count Matezeschi, of Poland.
June, 1819. Dr. Renselaer and Mr. Howard of the United States.
Aug. — Captain Hundrel, of England.
Aug. 1820. Dr. Hamel, of Russia, and Mr. Durnford, of England, reached the grand plateau with twelve guides, when an avalanche fell and buried several, of whom three perished.
Aug. 1822. Mr. Tree Clissold, of England.
Sept. — Mr. Jackson, of England.
Aug. 1825. Dr. E. Clark, and Captain Shirwell.
July. — Messrs. Fellowes and Howes, of England.
Aug. 1827. Mr. John Auldjo, who has given a most interesting narrative of the ascent.
Sept. 1834. Dr. Martin Barry,

One woman, called Mary of Mont Blanc, has been at the summit.

I am writing this with the loftiest of the Alps before me,—the snow of its brow dazzles my eyes, and the people of Chamouni say they do not recollect an autumn when its summits have been for so long a period unobscured by clouds or tempests. An attempt was made about a month since contrary to the advice of the guides, to reach the culm, after some snow had fallen. This failed, but Doctor Martin Barry, an English gentleman has just succeeded in making the ascent; the weather has been as propitious as he could wish. Experience also has taught the guides the best route and the safest mode of travelling, so that the ascent now, in comparison to that first made, may be compared to making a voyage at the present time round Cape Horn, instead of encountering the disasters of that made by Lord Anson.

The thin atmosphere of the Alps, and the consequent rapid evaporation, form the well known causes of lassitude and inclination to sleep, which is experienced. Some are depressed, or rather intoxicated, and then stupified by these feelings, at a much less height than others. On crossing the glacier pass of Segnes (which is from eight

to nine thousand feet high) from the Grisons to Matt in Glaris, and also on the Bernese Alps, I experienced on the former less drowsiness than my guide; while on the latter I felt greater inclination to sleep than the herdsman who accompanied me. In both cases the feeling was exactly the same as I have already mentioned having often experienced while travelling over snow during intense frost in the cold latitudes of North America.

But the transition being so sudden on ascending from a warm valley to the height of from eight to nine thousand feet amid perpetual snow, the effect on many constitutions is, first, insensibility, swooning, and then violent fever and swelling of the flesh and skin. Mules suffer so much uneasiness at the height of ten thousand feet that they can scarcely stand.

The greatest diurnal cold on the Alps is, as on plains, a little before day-break, and the most extreme heat occurs about two o'clock in the afternoon. The optical illusions, so frequent on, or in the vicinity of, the Alps deceive amazingly as to distance, especially before a South-wind, or rain, when the mountains appear twice as near

as before and much higher and more marked in the outline.

The experienced guides prognosticate forthcoming weather from various atmospheric appearances. When at eve the clouds extend along the mountains, and when in the morning they crest the summits, not the slopes, or when the culms are surrounded by semi-transparent vapors, which seem to greatly extend the surface and diminish the distance of the Alps, rain may be expected. In summer when it rains for several days, or for weeks, good weather cannot be depended upon, until snow falls on the inferior Alps. But when, in the morning, the snow is seen on the flanks of mountains from the summits down to the limits of forest trees, the Chamois hunters have no hesitation in ascending to the most perilous resorts.

The flux and reflux of the winds in summer form another remarkable phenomenon of the Alps; but the cause is no other than that which occasions the sea and land breezes in the West Indies, or in other countries, during hot weather. The greater evaporation during day, on the land, creates, if I may so speak, a suction to com-

mence, at the hottest hour, about two o'clock. Water, on sea coasts or lakes, and the thicker atmosphere of valleys, feed the current that rushes inwards to restore the equilibrium, over land and mountains. At night again condensation, or dews, is greater on land, especially highlands, than in valleys, or on water, and a part of this condensed vapor or dew rushes outwards or downwards to supply the more rarified atmosphere, whether over sea or valley—this is called by seamen, the land breeze—by the people of the Alps, the mountain-wind. When these become irregular and blow *vice-versâ*, that is if the wind in the evening blows up the valley, tempestuous weather may be expected.

This last wind Foehn (*Favonius*) is unexceptionably stormy on the Alps, and frequently blows with the fury of a hurricane, and accompanied by lightning and thunder. The South East wind parches the skin, and brings on dry weather. Thunder storms occur on the Southern flanks of the Alps in the morning, and on the North in the evening.

The gradual succession of vegetable substances, growing from the valleys upwards until

nothing but the *lichen* appears, affords the naturalist and botanist in the course of a few miles the advantage of examining the nature of the different regions of the globe, which on its common surface would require him to traverse a distance of from one thousand five hundred to two thousand miles. In this view the Alps of Savoy and Switzerland afford the most ample study to the naturalist, whether in geology, mineralogy, botany, or in examining the variations and phenomena of climate. The streams of the Arve and the Aveiron carry down from underneath the glaciers almost every species of Alpine rock. The source of the latter river seems no more than a small vault flowing from under the Mer-de-glace. Joseph, while we were on the opposite height, would not believe that the cavern was more than ten feet high, nor the green grass-like peaks of ice, more than twenty. On reaching the source of the Arveiron, we saw it rushing down violently out of an immense cavern. We proceeded some distance inwards until the dangerous difference struck me between entering a grotto formed of a solid rock, and a vault of ice, which was occasionally disintegrat-

ing, and we then instantly retraced our steps. We carried away some pieces of variously-colored granite, mica-slate, gneiss, quartz, disintegrated feldspah, breccia, asbestos, tuffa, &c. Accompanied by Doctor Scott, we afterwards collected two specimens each of the different rocks which we observed along the edge of the Arve, and on the following day returned to St. Martin by the route which leads from Chêde to the baths of St. Gervais.

The latter are situated in a most romantic dark valley, immediately beneath a picturesque waterfall—the bath buildings are commodious—the charge for lodging and board moderate, but the situation cold and gloomy.

We slept again at St. Martin, and on the following morning returned from one of the most interesting excursions that I have ever made.

On arriving at Geneva, letters awaited me containing intelligence which rendered it impracticable for me to pass the winter in Italy. In consequence we made up our minds to remain some time longer in Switzerland, and then return through Burgundy to Paris.

ALPINE PASTURES.

THE leading or peculiar occupations and customs of a people are always worthy of special inquiry, inasmuch as their predominant employments and favorite amusements, customs, and even prejudices form subjects of important consideration to the legislator as well as to the moralist. In Switzerland, whether it be among the herdsmen of the Alps and Jura, the watch-makers of the latter, or the chamois-hunters of the former, we may observe much to interest us.

The Alpine pasturages are elevated in heights of two, three, or more ranges, according to the season —the herdsmen ascending with their cows and goats and often with sheep, as the heat increases from early spring to the high temperature of July and August, and then descending as autumn declines into winter. These pastures form the principal source of maintenance and opulence to the inhabitants of the greater part of Switzer-

land, Savoy, the Voralberg, and the Tyrol. Each pasture elevation has its particular *chalets* for the herdsmen. The butter and cheese afterwards carried down to market are made in these tiny habitations. Below in the valleys, or often in sheltered nooks on the brow of the mountains, are the winter houses for the cattle, which are then fed with the hay gathered by great industry even in spots to which the goats can scarcely resort.

The intrepidity of the *mäher* (mower) of the Alps is scarcely less than that of the Chamois hunters. Whether he be gathering grass for the cows, blue melilot to mix with the cheese, or medicinal herbs for the druggist, he starts forth provided with food, *kirchwasser*, and tobacco —the soles of his shoes fortified with pointed nails, and with hay inside to soften his fall when he leaps from rock to rock,—his gaiters unbuttoned below to leave him free at the ancles, and a whetstone stuck under his belt to sharpen the little scythe or sickle carried over his shoulder. He thus ascends to the hollows and crests of rocks on the brow and summits of moun-

tains, and ties the hay he cuts in firm bundles, which he then pitches downwards from the heights. In this perilous way he in summer gains a scanty living. In winter he may be seen suspended by ropes, over precipices and gorges, to reach fallen trees which he contrives to displace and slide downwards for fuel. If he succeeds in saving, by these daring pursuits, enough to justify his demanding the hand of the maiden he loves, and whose father often has no more fortune than a little *chalet*, an Alpine pasture, and the milk of three or four cows, which the pretty peasant maid carries to sell in the valley, where he has probably first met her, he marries—takes a *chalet* and becomes, in his turn, a herdsman, and in time the proprietor of a few cows, and the father of a family.

The herdsmen are superstitious, as are all the people of the Alps. If, when driving their cattle to the mountains, they are stopt suddenly by torrents, the chief herdsman sends one of his comrades as a deputy to the parish curate to demand prayers, which he obtains on certain conditions—such as agreeing to give the good moral pastor a cream

cheese in autumn. The deputy then returns, the cows cross the torrent without difficulty or danger, and, soon after arriving at the *chalet*, the *chaudière* is filled before half of the milk is drawn from the cows.

The people of the valleys and Alps, especially of the Grindelwald, Oberhasli, Underwald, Uri, Glaris, Schwytz, Appenzell, St. Gall, and the Grisons, believe in lucky and unlucky days, and the Rothenthal and other dismal ravines to be the abode of sorcerers. They believe also in magic and fairies, and purchase amulets to cure diseases which they consider to be caused by sorcery. The mountain Genii, they say, create and allay storms, hover about water-sources, fountains, old mines, caverns, and ruins, and maltreat the herdsmen who have the hardihood to frequent their resort. These credulous people tell you gravely that early each spring a fairy appears at certain streams washing two white goats, if the season is to be abundant; and two black ones, if unfavourable weather, and bad crops and pastures are to ensue; that all the bees will fly off when the master of the house dies, if

they neglect acquainting them of the event by shaking the hive; that the subterranean people who dwell in the caverns of some mountains carry off sheep and goats and devour them in feasting with the spiritual guardians of the crystals of St. Göthard; that these evil Gnomes sometimes, but rarely, point out the retreats of the chamois, and permit the hunters to kill a certain number; but if they exceed the privilege they punish the disobedient.

A gigantic phantom is believed to appear annually, gorgeously apparelled, on Mount Pilate, and that whoever beholds him can only survive the vision one year. They relate tales at night, of hobgoblins and of dwarfs, seen disguised as herdsmen, leading off and then milking the cows, —of spectres chasing the cattle from Alp to Alp, lifting the heifers over ravines and precipices, and only at last giving them up to the prayers of the saints to whom most of the wells are consecrated. A common hobgoblin is a white horse seen at night standing on a mountain or rock. They have also their familiar spirits, or brownies, who assist them in keeping their flocks together,

and prevent the cattle from straying. Occasionally the brownies and other hobgoblins have desperate combats at night, on particular heights.

The pastoral Swiss have also their traditions of a golden age, when the cows grew to a monstrous size, and with udders so large and full that they were milked into valleys, where the cream was skimmed off into boats. One day, say they, a young cow-herd was overturned in his wherry while rowing over a milk pond; the youth of the neighbourhood, searched long in vain for his body. Afterwards, during the process of making butter in a churn as large as the round tower of a castle, his body turned up among the frothy cream, and they buried him in a cave which the bees had lined with honey-combs as large as the gates of a city.

These, with many other superstitious tales, should not, perhaps, be altogether despised among an ignorant people; they form, in fact, the poetry of the childhood of society. We must instruct them before we laugh at their prejudices and credulity.

The oxen and cows frequently grow to a prodi-

gious size. Some oxen are said to have attained the enormous weight of 3,000 lbs (of 16 ounces.)

The cattle that feed at an elevation of from four thousand to five thousand feet are considered the finest, especially in the Emmenthal, Simmenthal, Vaud, and Freiburg. The cows fed in these parts, weigh from 500 to 700 lbs, and yield ten to twelve quarts of milk per day. The lesser, and more general breed weigh about 400 lbs. Picot in his Statistics of Switzerland gives 900,000 as the number of cows, oxen, and young cattle, besides goats and sheep which feed in summer on the Swiss Alps. These are reduced by slaughter and sale to 600,000 in winter.

WILD SPORTS OF THE ALPS.

CHAMOIS HUNTING.

THE wild sports of Switzerland have decreased with the beasts of chase, which are said to have been formerly, remarkably abundant. Daniel the Hermit says "that he saw fifty hares a day brought to the same house, and the Grisons eat venison and game as plentifully as we do beef." Marmottes, or large mountain rats, are still esteemed in the Alps. They are salted and smoked, or when fresh are roasted like sucking pigs, by having the hair first scalded off: they are fat in autumn, and lean in winter. They yield about a pint of oil each, which is sold to the druggists. Goats may be considered indigenous, if not wild, in the mountains; they climb the steepest declivities, and even rocks which seem almost perpendicular. In Appenzell, they have skipped about me, and frisked along, following us for nearly an hour on the mountain brows: they will

gnaw or eat hedges through with their teeth, and leap over high walls to feed on the forbidden pastures. They eat eagerly the long mossy *lichen* which grows on the trunk and branches of the Alpine firs, and will live, and find something to browse on during the most severe winter.

The wild bull (Urus), which has given the name to the as savage Canton of Uri, formerly ranged amongst the mountain pastures. The antelope, stag, roebuck, fox, wolf, lynx, otter, bear, wild boar, and hares, are all stated by Picot to be yet met with, but that the antelope, stag, and lynx, are extremely rare, and, from the daily pursuit after them, will soon disappear.

Wild birds are also, in many parts, during the season, abundant; nearly every species in Europe frequents Switzerland, and in many parts there is not only an abundant field for shooting, but also excellent fishing. Woodcocks and snipes are shot in the alluvions or marshes of rivers; plovers, partridges, and also water-fowl are met with in places not much frequented. The great vulture of the Alps, and those who perch on the rocky cliffs

of lakes are among the most formidable birds of prey, and many stories are related of their ravenous courage and strength.

The Glarnisch, and other glaciers of Glaris, and the wilds of the lake of Wallenstadt, are favourite haunts of the Lammer-Geyer, (the vulture which carries off lambs,) or bearded vulture. A chamois hunter is said, several years ago, to have discovered on the scarp of a rock, near the summit of the Glarnisch, the aerie of one of those winged despots. He took off his shoes and stripped off all but his shirt and breeches, to enable him more easily to climb to it, and with only his fusil to support him at times, he climbed and crept up and along a narrow shelf suspended over a terrific precipice, until he reached the nest in which were the young brood. As he was in the act of taking them out the old vulture darted furiously, with the rapidity of lightning, down upon him from the heavens, and fastened her talons deep in his naked side. He, however, in this dreadful position, when a single false movement was certain destruction, retained his presence of mind. He remained firm, until he

drew with one hand the muzzle of his gun to the body of the vulture, and with the toe of one foot first cocked the lock and then fired the contents of the barrel through the body of the desperate tyrant of the air, which fell dead with its claws still sunk deeply in the hunter's flesh. The latter then descended safely with his prey—the young turned alive into his sporting-pouch—the old with its beak tied to its talons, hung round his neck. His wounds, the deep marks of which he always retained, are said to have been many weeks healing.

But all the wild sports of Switzerland give place to hunting the chamois. We saw these graceful animals brought down on different occasions. The last was at Chamouni. We had a quarter of it for dinner, but the flesh was little better than, (in fact much the same as) that of a young goat; and we only wonder that human beings would encounter the perilous risks they do, after this wild, but, when once caught alive, gentle animal—which never, from timidity, puts confidence in man. Hence the opinion that it cannot be tamed:—when the

fact is, that it cannot, with all its quick apprehension, overcome its dread of other animals.

The mountains of Appenzell, Glaris, Underwald, Uri, and the Bernese Alps, have been the most adventurous resorts of the pursuers of this timid animal.

To be an expert chamois hunter, all the qualities are necessary of a strong and active constitution, which can bear the extremes of heat and cold, whether in frosty nights on the Alpine rocks, or in the day exposed to a scorching sun—whether in wet, dry, snowy, or frosty weather. The hunter must not have any constitutional disposition to vertigo. His sight and hearing must be remarkably keen, his footstep sure, his hand firm and steady, with a presence of mind not to be suddenly startled in the most frightful perils.

To these qualities must be joined strength to carry burdens, and also courage, patience, and experience. All these to enable him to overcome the most fearful of animals.

The extreme timidity of the chamois, with its keen sense of smelling and hearing, and its active

dexterity, are the gifts of nature, which enable it to avoid the huntsmen with such extraordinary watchfulness and fleetness. They are hunted with, but generally without, dogs. Dogs are only convenient according to the position of the places which the chamois frequent.

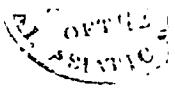
Two, and never more than three, hunters go forth in the night, with a pike hooked at each end, so as to take hold in ascending or crossing rocks or ice; also a mountain staff, armed or pointed with iron—a carabine or rifle—cramps with several points, and straps to attach them to the shoes to prevent slipping. In their *carnacière*, or large sporting pouch, they carry, besides ammunition, a small telescope, bread, cheese, and *kirchwasser*. The first night they rest at one of the most elevated *chalets*, generally an open shed, in which they are warmed by a wood fire. They set off early on the following morning, in order to arrive at break of day near where they expect to find a herd of chamois, or they probably go first to place themselves on some favourite height, where they establish what they term a *Luegi* (German *Lug*, *i.e.* illu-

sion)—that is, a lurking place on the verge of jutting rocks, where, to be hidden from view, they raise two large slabs of stone on edge, leaving a small interstice between to see through. One hunter then crawls on all-fours, from this ambuscade, and looks through his telescope in every direction for the chamois, his comrades resting with the arms, &c., behind the upraised stones. If he perceives game approaching, he makes a slight motion in the direction with his hand. They then deliberate as to how they may kill or best approach them, in case the herd turns in another direction. As they know well the country, with its passes, and the safety-rendezvous of the chamois, experience governs their decision.

The most dexterous hunter approaches from rock to rock—frequently creeping—sometimes watching half an hour or more, immoveably flat, according as the troop moves;—sometimes he takes off his white shirt, puts it on again over his clothes to resemble the snow or ice, over which he creeps;—sometimes he takes off his shoes, and walks barefoot, leaving all weight behind, over the dangerous ledges of precipices.

At other times he stands immoveable as the rocks—measures the distance he has to attain with the eye, and when he can distinguish the curves of the chamois' horns, he concludes he is within two hundred and fifty feet of the game. He then makes zig-zag or such other advances as he can. By patient circumspection he may at length approach within gun-shot distance, and then if he cannot mark the female leader, he fires at the largest and fattest. If it falls, he rushes to it, seizes it in triumph, and frequently drinks the blood in extacy, as he believes it to be a special antidote to vertigo. He then opens its stomach, throws away the uneatable intestines, ties the hind and fore feet together, and, throwing it over his neck, carries it down to his companions, who afterwards all make a frugal repast, and then continue the chase. At night they salt or smoke the game they thus kill. The skin is preserved for gloves, the fat for medical purposes, and the horns for sale. A full grown chamois weighs from fifty to seventy pounds, and in good condition, yields seven to eight pounds of suet or fat.

Sometimes the hunters separate; one goes in the immediate, the other to an opposite, direction. If they succeed in killing the female which leads the troop, the whole flock is stupified;—they run confusedly round her body, and are all easily shot; — a male never leads, or keeps sentry. When the female conductress perceives cause of alarm, she whiffles sharply, and the whole herd fly off, with amazing fleetness, to their inaccessible retreats. Formerly they were often discovered in herds of forty to fifty—now it is seldom that more than twenty are seen together. They bring forth a single fawn (rarely twins) in May: immediately after birth the fawn follows its dam, and almost with equal swiftness.



RURAL ARCHITECTURE OF SWITZERLAND.

The rural architecture of a country speaks much, if not strictly, for its actual prosperity, at least for the ideas of comfort, and consequently intelligent industry of the population. The cottages of England and the mud cabins of Ireland form tolerably correct indices to the respective conditions of the peasantry. The wretched mud-huts of Savoy, Nassau, and frequently those, in which live the squalid peasantry of the country extending for twenty or thirty miles west of the Rhine, tell you plainly that the people who inhabit them are in a far more poverty-smitten condition than those who live in the roomy, warm, and handsome, farm-houses and cottages of Emmenthal, Entlibuch, and Thurgau.

Between Flanders and Picardy, the difference of rural architecture is sufficiently striking to convince us that those who dwell in the clean,

airy, yet warm, and handsome, Flemish farm-houses, are, if not more opulent in their means, certainly blessed with greater in-door comforts than the agricultural population of the adjoining parts of France.

The Swiss farm-houses and cottages, especially in the valleys, are chiefly based on stone, and constructed of wood, usually larch, hewn smoothly, and joined closely together, the projecting roof, gables, and sides, and the obtuse angle at top are all, too, in the Grecian style. The ground floor is a kind of store house or cellar, and seldom inhabited, as the winter snows fall so deeply as to rise to the level of more than five or six feet. A gallery usually surrounds each of the other stories, and the roof projects above so as to shed the snow or rain off these balconies. The common ascent to each stage or floor, is by stairs leading to the gallery. The roof and walls are covered with very small wooden shingles, which, in appearance, when laid on, resemble the scales of a coat of mail. The floors are of fir boards—each house has a large stove contrived to diffuse warmth around, and to answer-

all the purposes of cooking. Near this stove, which is handsomely made, and always shining bright, a small stair-case leads to the second floor. The windows are extended in horizontal length along nearly all the breadth of the end walls, and occasionally in the side walls. They are formed of small parallelograms of glass set in wooden frames.

The little pastoral *chalets* are of only one story—the roof covered with boards, which are pressed down with heavy stones to prevent the wind blowing them off. The barns and cattle houses are well and commodiously constructed —the former often on the floor above the latter. In some parts the roofs of houses and barns are covered with tiles, but this is only common in the strictly agricultural districts. Altogether I have seen nowhere on the Continent of Europe, except Belgium and Holland, the peasantry so generally well lodged as in Switzerland. In the backwoods and new settlements of America where the materials are so abundant, how admirably suited is the architecture of Entlibuch and the Emmenthal!

GENEVA.

THERE is much in Geneva,—that is in its old buildings, old streets, old churches, in its learning and scholastic forms, that reminds me of Edinburgh; the stamp that Calvin gave to the manners and ideas of the one, and Knox to those of the other, being of the same faith and spirit, have produced nearly similar effects.

Geneva, like Edinburgh, owes much of its celebrity to the schools that have flourished within its walls from the time that Calvin founded the academy to the present day. Perhaps no seminary of learning, for the number of its students, has sent forth to the world more distinguished men for enterprise, talent, and honourable conduct.*

Here the resemblance, however, between Edinburgh and Geneva ends. The former contains more than five times the population, and

* See Notes to Note Book. No. 18.

twenty times as many inhabitants belonging to the spending class. Coteries always existed in both — the exclusive spirit of illiberality has, for the last one-third of a century, been dying fast away in the former, while it is more tenacious of life than ever in the latter.

Useful instruction, in all the sciences, is abundantly supplied. The museum, the observatory, the public library, &c., which I have visited, have much, as well as the botanic garden, to recommend them. Why do they close the latter on Sunday? the citizens, that is if they be so disposed, might there as innocently amuse themselves, studying natural history, as in leaving their pigmy watch and jewellery tools, to break, with giant hammers, limestone, gneiss, or slate, on the brows of the Salêve; for they are all geologists since the days of Saussure. But there are probably some Sir Andrews and Mr. Percevals still among the worthy magistrates of the town which the grim Calvin first hugged to his gloomy bosom.

The benevolent institutions of Geneva are admirable. The Cantonal hospital is a vast build-

ing, and its management is well and humanely administered. The poor appear also to be well provided for, either in the way of giving them employment or subsistence, or else they must, from the shame of being in poverty, have flown from a place where there is such active industry and so little apparent misery.

Geneva is certainly a curious town, with its fortified walls, steep streets, and high houses. But for some years its improvements have been more rapid and extensive than those of any town on the Continent. Since 1816, the botanic gardens, and a splendid street, the Rue de la Corraterie, and the opening of a broad and splendid quay in front of new and elegant buildings, and a magnificent new bridge, and other streets, and a palace-like hotel opposite, have all gorgeously and extensively embellished a town which was one of the most irregular, unsightly, but also one of the most charmingly situated, towns in Europe.

How gloriously does the Genfer-See open before it, with Mont Blanc and the Alps, and the stratified Salêve on the right, and the Jura's

wild and picturesque scenery on the left! How transparently blue does the magnificent Rhone flow through it, and downwards amid sublime precipices and luxuriant verdure! Then the rides and excursions on each side the lake, whether to Ferney, to Secheron, to Copet, or Lausanne; or on the south to Chêne, the residence of Sismondi, or to Coligni, where Byron dwelt, and from which he made excursions on the lake, to the Shelleys at Secheron, or to Corinne at Copet, or finally to the awful recesses of Chamouni.

Then you are on the high roads to Milan and all Italy,— to Savoy,—to all parts of Germany,— to Lyons,—to Paris,—to all parts of France, with post-horses or public conveyances ready for you. How delightful a place it must be to reside in— why not fix my habitation here, where I and my wife, quite unenslaved by other ties, may repose, or walk, or ride, to enjoy heavenly views in a climate nearly as mild in winter as that of Paris? Why, because we also love society—that which is on the courteous well-bred footing of the Soirées of our best circles in Paris—that of our warm-hearted friends in England; not that

which resembles the social intercourse of Geneva, consisting, with all its wisdom and intelligence, of redoubtable coteries! If that be the case, I would reside with nearly the same goodwill as an exile at Tobolski, or even as a dweller in Chester, Litchfield, York, or any other Cathedral country town. To hear, to think, and to speak happily and independently, that is, honestly; so as to delight and be delighted, without the trammels of prejudice, we must live amidst the society of the gigantic capitals of great free nations, or with a small circle of social friends amidst rural solitudes.

I was two days at Geneva before Torti's Roman horses appeared dragging the carriage slowly along over the Bridge, from the direction of Vaud. I was rather uneasy about them, but found that my party had halted to rest longer than I expected, at Verdan, and at Lausanne. I had, in the meantime, visited the Academy, Museum, and almost every institution in Geneva; dined one day at the *table d'hôte* of the hotel in which I put up, the second at the hotel de Bergues, where I met some acquaintance; there, also was

(with her brother, as I was told) the Countess G———, not very fair, but certainly very fat; she has expressive eyes—further I admire not—for although I will not hate, I have never loved "a dumpy woman."

At the *table d'hôte* of the hotel de Bergues there was an immense assemblage, English, Germans, Swiss, Italians, and French. Some resided there for the summer, but the greater number were transient flying visitors for one or two days. Such a table exhibits very strikingly the peculiar manners of the people of different countries when assembled in society; but I doubt if those characteristics form any data whereby to judge of the domestic manners or habits of a nation. If so the people of England and of the United States would appear to lamentable disadvantage beside those of the Continent. I must, however, note, that I have not, during very extensive intercourse and observation, remarked, on the part of the higher intelligent English whether of the nobility, or of the untitled families, any instance of manners or language offensive either to their own coun-

trymen or to foreigners. I must make an exception, however, in respect to young men, the sons of the gentry, when unaccompanying their families.

SISMONDI.

THIS celebrated historian, economist, and philanthropist, resides at his patrimonial seat Chêne. I drove out, on arriving at Geneva, to see him. We had a letter of introduction from our worthy friend, Miss Garnett, whom we left at Paris, deeply engaged in Scandinavian lore, and translating that beautiful heroic legend of Royal love, "Frithiof's Saga."

I found Sismondi in his library, from which Mont Blanc towers gloriously in the view over the Salêve. I was delighted with his conversation and his benevolent views,* so unassuming, so good, and so disinterested is Sismonde de Sismondi, you might realize your dreams of a Republic. Read and study the best history of your nation, written by this impartial and profound philosopher, and then learn wisdom before you attempt forming constitutions!

* See notes to the Note Book, No. 19.

We talked on various matters—on politics—on the general state of things—of Switzerland, and of literary men. Had some conversation about Jeremy Bentham and his manuscripts, and Etienne Dumont, whose family are in Geneva. Madame Sismondi soon after joined us, and we then talked of mutual friends, of Paris, of London, and of Geneva;—of France, of England; and of Switzerland.*

How tranquilly happy they both look: what a sweet retreat is theirs.! I wish it was transferred with all its scenery, to within some ten miles of either London or Paris, that I might frequently join their weekly *soirées*. Meantime my wife and friends, and I, are invited to meet the *elite* next week at Chêne. I returned to Geneva, but drove first to Diodati—a charming spot: but no Byron is there!

* Madame de Sismondi was a Miss Allan, sister of the late Lady Macintosh. It is needless to say how intimate and friendly Sismondi and Sir James Macintosh were. Sismondi can never be lost to the world. He lives from a patriotic sense of duty in Switzerland; but his sphere is either London or Paris.

FERNEY.

In making excursions in the vicinity of Geneva, we found it convenient to have one of the roomy well-made coaches, which you open or close over head at pleasure, and which the landlord of our hotel provided. It carried us all very comfortably.

About a mile from Geneva, in a lane overhung with wood, we observed two ladies and a venerable-looking old gentleman, with hair and a long beard, white as snow. My wife called my attention to him, saying, "there is Sir Egerton Brydges! I know him by his resemblance to the curious portrait in his autobiography." The likeness was striking, and the appearance of the aged Baronet (who is, he declares, by the law of the land, Baron Chandos of Sudeley) highly patriarchal.

He lives little known to society, devoting his

hours to poetry and other literature. I agree not with him in political ideas, nor in many of his opinions regarding men and their ways; but that he has transcendant perceptions of poetic grandeur, no one unprejudiced can deny.

The road to Ferney, from which we diverged to the high wooded bank where you overlook the muddy Arve, rushing like desperation into the pellucid Rhone, leads picturesquely through a fertile country.

We had forgotten that Ferney is a few hundred yards within the French frontier, and remembered not our passports. The police stopped us with the accustomed "*On ne passe pas!*" Absolute as the government of Prussia is, I had travelled through that kingdom and out of it, and except on passing from the Belgian frontier, my passport was not asked for afterwards, neither in Prussia, Nassau, Darmstadt, Baden, Basel, or any Canton of Switzerland. At Zurich I sent it to the proper office merely to have it stamped to show I had passed through Switzerland. They demanded it not in Zug, the Forest Cantons, Lucerne, Berne, Freiburg, Neuchatel, Vaud, or

Geneva; but the moment we entered France, "*votre passeport*" was the salutation. Blessed fruit of bloody revolutions, and of bloody wars—beautiful liberty for thirty-four millions of people—the perpetual surveillance and custody of a political police. England and America, you have at least the privilege of walking on whatever road you please, to boast of as a liberty which your revolutions and reforms have not deprived you of! How different have been the consequences of revolutions, and the realities of reforms in England, America, and France!

The French police, gendarmes, and douaniers, however, when they are convinced you are neither Carlist, Republican, or Bonapartist, give as little inconvenience as possible. They said, "if you can satisfy Monsieur le Maire, he will take your parole." I had in my pocket a letter from a well known public character at Paris, directed to me at Geneva. I found the Mayor taking his wine; he was very civil—looked at my letter, said to the Policemen, "Let Monsieur and his party pass, I have his parole"—then asked me to take a glass of Chambertin,

which I willingly did — and we parted most courteously.

A few minutes brought us to the populous village of Ferney, at the top of which we turned off by a broad avenue, which led us past the church, on which is inscribed *Deo Erexit Voltaire*; was this a conviction or a whim of the philosopher? We entered the residence, which is rather severe and feudal than magnificent in its exterior appearance, yet much altered, although somewhat restored by its present possessor, and as the Count de Lally Tollendal observes when he visited it, "the study in which Voltaire wrote the age of Louis XV., the fragments on India, and the Defence of Calas, is occupied by a servant, in which he polishes, not the human mind, but boots."

Two apartments only remain, an anti-chamber, and the bed-room of Voltaire, as the philosopher occupied them. In the latter are the bed and bedding on which he slept, the chairs on which he sat, tables, &c., with his portrait, tolerably painted, and very expressive, at forty: another of Madame du Chatelet; one of Frederick the

Great, quite in keeping with that monarch's character, and sent by him, when he wanted to regain the favourable opinion of Voltaire. Near it is a portrait of Catherine of Russia, worked in tapestry, and, as she says in the inscription on it, by her own imperial hands for her friend M. Voltaire. The other portraits are Le Kain's —very expressive: a Savoyard boy, and Voltaire's seamstress with a Madonna face—the latter are in crayons. There are engraved portraits of Washington and Franklin, Calas, and Sirven. In the same room is the pyramidal monument erected to, but which does not contain the heart of, the philosopher; although all English travellers, who have written their tour, tell us it does, gathering their information from the inscription—

" Son Esprit est partout, mais son Cœur est ici."

It bears also another device—very silly, if applied to the surrounding pictures—

" Mes Manes sont consolées puisque mon Cœur est au milieu de vous."

The chateau, the rooms and the furniture, are

all simple in design and unostentatious. Not so a painting over the door of the bed-room, said to have been designed by Voltaire himself. If so—never was there a greater violation of the unities, an accusation which Voltaire delighted to charge against Shakespeare. Our great dramatist, however, has never introduced the double of the same character at the same moment on the same stage. But the *genus irritabile vatum* of Voltaire, which never could bear the eternal fame of Shakespeare, here blazes forth in a combination of ostentatious vanity and diabolical revenge. The precept of Horace *Ut pictura poesis* is neither in the design nor in the execution; and, as Count Lally Tollendal very justly observes —"*Le sujet est double, et ce double sujet c'est Voltaire et encore Voltaire.*"

Henry IV., with the Henriade in his hand, presents Voltaire's praises of the first of the Bourbons to Apollo, from whom he solicits triumphant honors for the poet. The God accords those unphilosophic requests to the King, and Voltaire appears, advancing conspicuously, on the left of the middle ground of the picture;

while he, at the same time, on the right, is as ostentatiously conducted in triumph by a choir of muses and groups of genii to the temple of memory: beneath, an infernal gulf yawns, in whicl his enemies, in the agonies of despair, are falling down head foremost.

The whole conception is so barbarous—so incoherent,—that if it were not well authenticated, we could not for a moment think that a genius so indisputably great and splendid (notwithstanding all that fanaticism, and illiberality, and envy, have said to blast his fame) could bring forth so monstrous an abortion.

His taste, in choosing Ferney for a residence, and in its garden and avenues, which he laid out and planted, was of a far different character. This delicious site, with its prospect of Mont Blanc and Alpine scenery,—of the Jura, and of the banks and lake of Geneva, is, indeed, such a retirement as a wise man, with kindred society, would delight to spend his years in, after the active gaiety of the world ceased to possess allurements.

His private theatre and library have been destroyed and there local transformed into that of

a large green-house. The neglected church looks as if it would soon fall to the ground. An old man, who acts as beadle, shews the place within it which Voltaire marked out for his tomb. It is very different from that where his remains now lay, *vis-à-vis* to those of his antagonist Rousseau, in the proud chambers of the dead, within the Pantheon at Paris. The same aged being pointed to the slab on which Voltaire sat, telling us that he attended the service thrice a-year in the church, viz. on Easter, Pentecost and the *Fête Dieu*. It was probably on one of these occasions when, observing the assembled villagers, whom he had collected and made happy at Ferney, still happier in their devotions, that he was inspired with the beautiful verse beginning—

"*Si dieu n'existait pas, il faudrait l'inventer*".

I looked for the bust of Voltaire, in porcelain, the first thing created by the royal manufactory of Berlin, and with the word *immortalis* on its base, written in letters of gold by the hand of the Great Frederick: but the royal gift is gone.

The aged man, who was our *cicerone*, shewed us a specimen of Voltaire's autograph; but the parchment folio within which were the seals, with their signatures attached, of the correspondents of the Seigneur of Ferney, has fled, probably, with the bust to Paris.

We were at first amused when he showed us a fanciful grey silk cap which, he said, the author of Tancred and Merope wore in summer, when he promenaded "*faisant des gestes sur la terrasse.*"

A little reflection made me think more seriously on the subject, and ask myself, what in reality is the sum of wisdom and the amount of happiness.

Nothing is termed ridiculous, or indecent but what is not customary among us, the manners of other nations, when not familiar to us, are at once considered ridiculous; that is as fit subjects for being laughed at. The foolish exquisites who were in the steam-boat in which we came down the Thames, laughed at the honest London tradesman, who innocently thought that rushes and reeds were fine corn. Slavish customs would say a Newton, a David Hume, a

Boerhaave, an Erasmus, an Adam Smith, a Swift, a Voltaire, a Rousseau, a Grattan, a Franklin, a Rollin, a Jeremy Bentham, a Rowland Hill, a Pestalozzi, acted ridiculous parts, they had all their eccentricities, or in other words, did things which did not square with prim formality, or with fashion.

A lady said one day to Madame de Stael, "it is surprising how very clever persons do such very foolish things." "Not at all," replied Corinne, "stupid people do just as many, but no one thinks it worth while to notice them."

Voltaire entered into the spirit of his own tragedies by frequently acting the part, in his private theatre, of some one of the characters. He did more—to save the trouble of dressing twice in the day, he often used in the morning to put on the costume of the personage which he represented in the evening, and would, so dressed, go down directing his gardener, which our present *cicerone* says his father was, and then for one or two hours go to overlook his labourers in the village.

The little anecdotes of the private life of great men are always interesting, and the Veteran

who attended us repeated many. From his age, however, he could not be more than fifteen when Voltaire left Ferney, and must have had most of those anecdotes related to him by his father.

When Voltaire became possessed of the property of Ferney, in 1769, its inhabitants were lodged in eight wretched cottages. In 1778, when the Philosopher died, the village which he reared, contained, exclusive of his own chateau and church, eighty comfortable houses, and one thousand two hundred inhabitants. At that period Ferney was visited by the illustrious of Europe.

I was anxious to see the public *salon-à-manger* of the chateau of Ferney.

Here were daily spread twenty-four covers, for passing travellers, who had to make an arduous ascent over the Jura, or who had descended, fatigued or hungry, after surmounting that difficult elevation.

Many were the kind acts of Voltaire; and if he laughed at the world and satirized religion, it was the manners, the prejudices, the follies, of the age, and the abominations of priestcraft, which he

attacked and exposed to the contempt of mankind.

In alluding to what he had done at Ferney, his own expression is beautiful—

"J'ai fait un-peu de bien, c'est mon meilleur ouvrage."

RURAL CUSTOMS AND FÈTES.

THE pastoral peasantry and those of the democratic Cantons are the most ardent in athletic exercises, and in celebrating the anniversaries of the great deeds of their ancestors. Many of their old observances are still reverentially maintained. The wrestlers of Entlibuch, which I have elsewhere noticed; the annual processions and cross-bow shooting at Altorf, on the spot where Tell hit the apple placed by Gesler's command, on his son's head; the respectful funeral ceremonies; the *kiltgang*, or the nocturnal but innocent meeting of lovers; the *jeu des œufs*, or egg-game of Unterseen; the dancing fêtes, and wedding matches of Freiburg; the *fêtes des vignerons* of Vevey, and many other customs are still celebrated with joyous enthusiasm. Many have, however, ceased to be observed: such as the fêtes of liberty of Schwytz, and the processions of Zug.

The diffusion of education, the new modes of agriculture, and the extension of manufacturing industry, are effecting changes and results in the manner and customs of the labouring population in Switzerland, similar to those in progress among the most enlightened nations of Europe.

There are few people, however, more tenacious of their traditions and costumes than the Swiss. The Scotch Highlanders were so until the end of the last century; and although the songs and tales of Scotland are always dear to the heart of those born on her soil, yet the kingdom as regards interest, and civil, religious, and political rights, being now completely amalgamated with the empire of which she forms an integral part of the great whole, the customs, dress, language, and interests of all the people of which, are rapidly assimilating.

The twenty-two Cantons of Switzerland, except for the confederated purpose of protection, are each independent states; and the people of each are respectively proud of their particular national customs, traditions, and costumes.

The *Kil'gang* prevails nearly all over Switzer

land. On Sunday evenings the young herdsman descends from the hills to visit the maiden he loves. The former approaches the window of the latter, who is decorated in her best attire. He recites boldly a rhyming or prose romance: she replies and consents to a sort of capitulation. The young lover then mounts to the window sill on which he sits: she offers him some gingerbread and kirchwasser. He then enters, or remains without, according to the degree of favor with which he is received; and they usually prolong the conversation until day break.

Impropriety seldom occurs: should virtue be offended and its abuse known, the parents of each, or if not, the minister or priest of the parish, insist on the immediate marriage of the parties.

The Egg-game was generally played every Easter monday at Berne and other places. It is still continued at Unterseen, where one hundred and one eggs are placed in a strait line at equal distances from each other. At one end an expert man stands, holding a corn-fan filled with grain, into which he dexterously receives the eggs thrown to him.

Two young persons, in gay costumes, and sometimes with hair powdered, join hand in hand, and, preceded by joyous music, follow one on each side the line of eggs to the farther end. They there separate, one runs with all his might to Neuhaus, there drinks a glass of wine, and runs back as swiftly, in order to be on the spot before the other can lift up all the eggs, one by one, and throw them in the same order into the fan. If he fails, or if one egg falls on the ground, the whole are replaced and he must recommence his labor. The first who conquers, receives a prize contributed by the spectators: a dance generally terminates this feast.

The Fêtes of Liberty, the last of which was celebrated in Schwytz, in 1784, formed a regular drama. On the appropriate day, a multitude assembled in a meadow near to the head of the lake of the four Cantons.

The Genius of Switzerland then appears carrying in one hand a crown surmounted with the insignia of the thirteen Cantons: in the other a lance, on the top of which was the cap of liberty. He marched, preceded by two armed heralds of

gigantic stature, and with two warriors in full armour, and bearing each a large ancient sword. A muscular group of Alpine herdsmen in the usual costume, and carrying a huge Morgenstern, followed in the procession: then came the captain of the cross-bowmen, and his troop, costumed in green, and each bearing his bow and quiver and arrows. On their approach, William Tell, and the three great liberators of the country Fürst, Stauffacher, and Melchthal; also Conrad Baumgarten, who, with a blow of his battle-axe, cut off the head of a Baron of Wolferchies, who attempted to maltreat him. The servants of Gesler then appear, in the costume of the time, and plant the pike, on which they place their master's hat. The deputies of the Cantons then come forward carrying each his banner. A corps of chosen soldiers bring up the rear. The Genius of Helvetia then advances and pronounces an oration, in which he enjoins the people to follow the virtuous footsteps of their ancestors, and to transmit, in purity to their descendants, the precious deposit of liberty confided to their care,

and to show themselves at all times worthy of the good Swiss name.

This forms the prelude to the drama.

In the first act, Gesler takes possession of the house built by Stauffacher, under pretence that it is too large for a private individual; the three liberators then appear, declaring the degraded state of Switzerland, and vow solemnly to liberate their country, and drive from it their oppressors.

The second act represents the people saluting, as they pass, the hat of Gesler. William Tell then passes on with scorn, and is arrested by the soldiers of Gesler, and condemned to shoot at an apple placed on his son's head:—he pierces the apple and his son is safe.

The third act represents the Austrians carrying off the cattle of old Melchthal; the son indignantly attacks the bailiffs, and flies from the vengeance of the governor, who, being unable to arrest the son, puts out the father's eyes.

The fourth act represents the act of confederacy between the Forest Cantons.

The fifth opens with a faithful representation of the National Diet, in the midst of which appears Nicholas of Flue, exhorting justice and concord. The Genius of Switzerland reappears, and closes the drama by a patriotic and animated oration.

The "Fête of the Vintage," celebrated at Vevey, exhibits a medley derived from pagan ceremonies,—from the Old Testament,—and from domestic customs, with songs and dances. In these assemblies from five to six hundred actors appear,—some costumed as patriarchs,—some as mitred abbots with crosses in hand,—others as Hercules with his massy club,—and as Jupiter, vestal virgins, goddesses, and shepherdesses, all appropriately costumed. When the procession is over, they repair to the Grande Place to enjoy a gorgeous banquet prepared for them at the common expense. While they are feasting, bands of musicians play the national airs. This imposing ceremony has also been lately celebrated with splendor at Lausanne.

"Eating the Bread of Reconciliation," is one of the most pleasing customs of Switzerland, and

is more particularly common in the Grisons. When two neighbours fall out, their mutual friends contrive to bring them together in the same house, and then prevail on them to sit down with the company to eat bread at the same table. If they succeed, which is generally the case, rancour and animosity ceases—the persons at variance break and eat the same bread, and they afterwards are usually better friends than before.

In the Engadine, if a man has been falsely accused, imprisoned, tried and acquitted by the judges, all the inhabitants assemble to conduct him from prison, and the prettiest young maid of the district presents him with a flower, "the rose of innocence."

The young always rise respectfully before the old, and they listen in silence to the tales of ancient times, related by the aged.

SWISS MERCENARIES.

From the number of Swiss stipendiary troops at various periods in foreign pay, and chiefly maintained by absolute potentates to suppress all opposition on the part of subjects attempting to resume their liberty, we might naturally conclude that the mercenary troops of Switzerland wanted both moral principle and patriotism. This would, however, be a hasty decision. It would be no easy matter to prove that the Helvetian soldiery do not go forth to serve and fight, regardless of the cause, exactly in the spirit of Captain Dalgetty, for those in whose service they are sure of the best quarters, best pay, and expect most booty; yet when they once hire themselves to any power, no matter whom, provided their masters, for the time, fulfil the contract entered into, the fidelity of Swiss mercenaries is equal to that of a Newfoundland dog. Their conduct in France, particularly in

1793 and 1830, sufficiently prove this. England has had them in her service in attempting to crush liberty in America. The pope, and the Kings of Sardinia and Holland, still retain their Swiss mercenaries.

Puffendorf draws characters of the different European nations, a century and a-half ago, and from what he then says of the Swiss, the following quotation is not only curious but almost true of them in the present day :—

" The Switzers pretend to be downright honest and true to their word; and, indeed, they are generally simple and plain-dealing, without any great cunning or bye-designs; but they are courageous and soon provoked to wrath. They are steadfast in their resolutions, from whence they don't easily recede; their valour, constancy, tallness, and strength of body, has so recommended them to a great many princes, that they choose their guards among them, and the King of France maintains a considerable number of Switz foot soldiers. They are very forward to fight, but not to undergo any other hardship or labor; they expect to have duly their pay, if

that fail, they return home as fast as they can; from whence comes the proverb—"No money no Swisse." They do not love to bear hunger or hardship in other countries, because they have enough of that at home. It is one of the articles of agreement made with France, that that crown shall never have less than six thousand at a time in pay, and that these are not to be separated. That in case these articles should not be performed, they may be in a capacity to assist one another. They also never will be employed in any sea service."

They have seldom intermingled with the ranks of other nations, but fight in regiments, battalions, or companies, all composed of their own nation.

There are no Swiss guards maintained since the last revolution in France. In fact the latter nation abhors them.

The King of Holland maintained, in 1830, and, I believe, does so still, three regiments of two full battalions, and one regiment of three battalions — in all nearly equal to about six thousand men—pay exclusive of allowance for

clothing, amounted to 1,175,114 florins, and their total expense to 1,944,522 florins or £162,043 sterling.

The King of Sardinia maintains at present only a company of one hundred Swiss guards, and the Pope two full regiments of three battalions each, and amounting, in all, to four thousand four hundred men.

There is much, however, to be lamented in this practice of a people hiring themselves to butcher their fellow creatures, especially if it be not to protect the majority against arbitrary power. Our English troops, now in Spain, are to all intents mercenaries, and as far as they may be engaged against the inhabitants of Biscay and Navarre, they will be fighting to deprive those people of privileges very nearly resembling those of the democratic cantons of Switzerland, which the present constitution deprives them of.*

* See "Resources and Statistics of Nations," vol. i., where the local privileges of the provinces of Biscay and Navarre are detailed. In respect to the other provinces of Spain again, the opposition to Don Carlos is that of oppression against the attempt to re-establish a greater despotism in government and religion than that which already exists. In England the new constitution

of Spain is far from being understood. Like that of France, but far less liberal, its spirit centres all power in the Capital, and aims at destroying all that remains of the electoral privileges and self government of districts and municipalities. It is in consequence of this policy on the part of the Court of Madrid, and the influence of the priests, who impress on the minds of the people the double cry of "liberty," "and church in danger," that Don Carlos has been able to hold out so long.

SWISS EMIGRATIONS.

SWITZERLAND from a greatly improved state of agriculture, and the extensive introduction of manufacturing industry, may probably maintain in another half century twice her present population of about two millions. It is, however, certain, that emigrations, which have long prevailed, will always continue to flow from this country to others, that afford a wider field for more profitable industry and enterprize.

Necessity at all times have caused the Swiss, like the Scotch, to emigrate, and the success of each in foreign lands have been strictly similar. Formerly, when all the European nations were in a political condition not favorable to foreigners, and America only beginning to be known, plagues frequently carried off the redundant population, or rather the number of mouths over those for which there was sufficient food. These diseases, like cholera and typhus fever, in the

present day, usually devastating the habitations of the poverty-smitten portion of the population.

One of the greatest ravages,—that which most effectually impoverished Switzerland, and gave, especially after the peace of 1815, the greatest stimulus to emigration,—was caused by the wars of the French revolution, to which the Swiss Cantons became, from their position between France, Italy, and Germany, the devoted prey of a licentious soldiery and avaricious leaders.*

* Zchokke, who was appointed a Commissioner to act on the part of Switzerland at that disastrous period thus expresses himself—

"The Italian confederated states retained every mark of their former long servitude under corrupt, or incapable masters. That beautiful country was inhabited by an half savage race,—the land was ill cultivated; the people were, generally speaking, suspicious, ignorant, superstitious, cunning, bold, and servile. The Helvetian commissioner could only maintain his official dignity by measures of severity, and to put an end to political persecution and deeds of bloody vengeance, he was often obliged to use the power of punishment entrusted to him. He belonged himself to no party, and obtained, therefore, the confidence of none. Those who called themselves patriots, spoke of him, both in their private conversations and public newspapers, as an aristocrat, receiving pay from England and Austria. But he was so fortunate, while residing alternately at Lugano, Bellinzona, and Locarno, as to succeed in preserving security and peace, and to find some men of information and moderate opinions, whose counsels proved of

Having, on several occassions, observed the arrival of Swiss emigrants in America, and

essential use to him, and who had never taken part themselves in the bloody transactions of their countrymen. With the approbation of government, one of these men was afterwards named Governor of the Canton of Bellinzona, another (Franzoni) governor of Lugano, and a third, Maghetti, was placed at the head of the chamber of administration of Lugano.

To induce the clergy to support the republic and public order, the Commissioner delayed the declaration of the Helvetian constitution, until after the payment of the tythes, of which they had been deprived by unjust laws. In the month of August, the constitutional government was for the first time established, and the tree of liberty raised amidst loud applause and rejoicings. Auffdemaur, a native of Naples, who spoke Italian with great facility, proclaimed with much enthusiasm, to the assembled gaping multitude beneath the trees of Lugano, the blessings of *liberta* and *equalianza*.

These blessings were in the mean time much interrupted by the unbounded avarice of General Massena. After having occasioned a famine in Italian Switzerland, by prohibiting the exportation of corn, he sold it himself through his emissaries, at an exorbitant price, in the market of Locarno. The Helvetian Commissioner, finding that all his representations to the French and Cisalpine governments produced no effect in controlling this infamous speculator in corn, and bold extortioner of money, repaired in person to Berne (September 1800) to endeavour to remedy existing evils. He there informed the Helvetian executive council, and the French ambassador, both by word of mouth and official documents, of the abuses which that unfortunate part of Switzerland had endured, in contempt of all stipulations, and rights of nations. The noble minded Rheinhard, and Matthew

having marked their patient endurance, industry, and propriety, while suffering the privations and encountering the difficulties incident to new countries, and afterwards their well-earned prosperous condition, I entertained in consequence, not only then, but afterwards while on the continent of Europe, a lively interest in the causes which occasioned their expatriation.

Dumas, chief of the general staff of the French corps of reserve accompanied him back to the Italian States.

On the frontiers of France, opposite to Basle, there was a repetition of the same prohibitions and speculations upon corn, which had occasioned bloodshed in Italian Switzerland. The French General, Amey, established posts on the soil of Switzerland, and at the doors of Basle, with the intention, he said, of preventing smuggling. This shameless abuse of power in a country where the entrance of corn was not prohibited, induced the Governor, when he found that all friendly expostulation was vain, to order that at the first repetition of the act, the soldiers at the French posts should be imprisoned, and their officers sent away; and, resolving to oppose by open force this act of flagrant injustice, he commanded the citizens to assemble, fully armed, in the square of the town, immediately in front of the windows of the French General. He then passed them in review himself, and afterwards held a communication with Amey, who agreed to give up the command, and receive fresh terms from the Commander in Chief, Moreau. The French government, however, opposed this agreement strenuously, and would not consent to make any alteration in the terms which had already been granted and received.[1]

I was driving in a cabriolet, outside of the walls of Paris, in 1832, and near the Port St. Nicholas I observed an encampment, or rather two encampments, which I mistook for a numerous band of gipsies, until the fresh complexions of the men, women, and children undeceived me. I got out of the cabriolet, and walked to where they were cooking some food at different little fires, and made inquiry as to who they were. An elderly sedate looking man gave me the following information—

They were Swiss emigrants from the Canton of Freiburg going to the United States, by way of Havre. The first emigrations after the war from that Canton, Neuchatel, and Berne, commenced generally in 1818, when the agents of the American packets at Havre, (in consequence, as I knew, of the success of those employed especially for the packet ships arriving from New York at Liverpool) first reached the Swiss Cantons with flattering accounts of the new world. Young men were those who then tried the experiment of emigrating. They hired themselves for two or three years to pay the charge of

passage, and for a small portion of land and a few implements of agriculture. The successes of the first emigrants and their letters to their friends induced others to follow; and in a few years, annual and general emigrations on a great scale have moved from Switzerland and Germany to America. The sobriety, hardihood, and industry, common among all these people, adapt them admirably for the colonization of wooded countries; and were I to proceed to found a new colony, and wanted settlers, I do not know, on the continent of Europe, those that I would prefer—taking them with all their excellent moral, and physical qualities—to the inhabitants of the Swiss valleys.

On determining to emigrate, a resolution which poverty and the want of employment alone compel them to adopt, they sell everything (except a horse if they have one) to pay their expenses to Havre, and their passage from thence to America. They then construct a light covered cart, in which the family travels over France, sleeping in the same vehicle at night, while the horse feeds on the grass along the

road, and living themselves as they best can until they reach their place of embarkation, where they sell the horse and cart for whatever they can get.

The laws of the United States regulate the number of passengers to the tonnage of the ship, yet this humane law is often violated, for not long since a vessel of only ninety-four tons left with no less than one hundred and six passengers, who were bribed away by the low freight of thirty francs each person. The question of transporting passengers across the Atlantic appears next in point of humanity to the negro slave trade, and the "white slave trade" of carrying emigrants to America claims loudly the attention of the philanthropists.

SWISS WATCHMAKERS.

Of all the mechanical and handicraft employments of the Swiss people, there are none more interesting, in the details of occupation and result, than that of watchmaking, with its numerous divisions and sub-divisions.

The day after I arrived at Geneva, I received a letter addressed—

A Monsieur,
Monsieur Milord—
&c. &c. &c.

This letter was neither more nor less than an eulogy on the super-excellence of the watches and jewellery of one of the most extensive *horologers* in the town. It was impossible to make any article superior to, or so cheap as his, f r he surpassed all the world as a manufacturer!

This trade puff, however, was a text to inquire further into the extent of an ingenious branch

of industry, that has enriched thousands in the cantons of Geneva and Neuchatel.

The Genevese commenced watchmaking about two hundred and fifty years ago, and from that period they contrived to excel all other nations in the beauty of their workmanship until the year 1787, when they reached the *acmé* of prosperity; the master manufacturers employing more than four thousand workmen in the city, and about two thousand in their auxiliary workshops at Cluse, Vevey and St. Croix.

Clock and watchmaking commenced amid the ravines of the Jura, in the canton of Neuchatel, about the middle of the last century. The business increased rapidly in consequence of disturbances which expelled a great number of Genevese artisans from their city. The establishments at Locle, and Chaud de Fonds, have given employment to, and enriched a population, which has more than quadrupled since this profitable branch of ingenious industry commenced, to which has since been added curious works in wood, ivory, shells, &c.: rents are in consequence higher in that wild valley than in the most fertile plain;

and never did hydraulic ingenuity succeed in a more daring attempt than in constructing the subterranean mills, where the river Bied has been conducted by a tunnel cut about one thousand one hundred feet through the rocky mountain.

The watchmakers of the Jura are adepts in manufacturing to suit the taste of all nations. Simple solid watches for Holland, Germany, and the United States—watches enamelled and enriched with pearls for Spain and Italy—large watches with gilded copper cases, ornamented with Mahometan devices, for the Turkish market —and those of every fanciful fashion to suit the caprices of France and England.

The computed number of watches exported annually from the Canton of Neuchatel, is stated by Picot at one hundred and thirty thousand, the most part of which are in gold cases, besides about one thousand clocks, (the prices of the watches are from about six shillings to about twenty-four pounds sterling each); about one hundred and thirty thousand pounds weight of the parts of watches and clocks, and of tools for watch-makers are also exported annually. Seventy thousand watches

chiefly gold, and ladies' watches, are said to be made in Geneva annually, but these statements appear to me vague—the smuggling carried on to an enormous extent into France, Italy, and Germany rendering these statements uncertain.

Many are the tales of the ingenious methods of smuggling to evade the French douaniers. Some time ago, when the Marquis de St. Criq was Directeur en Chef of the Douanes of France, he resolved to put the vigilance of the douaniers to the test by repairing personally to Geneva. He there went to the *magazin* of one of the first watchmakers and jewellers, and purchased various articles to a considerable value, on the sole condition that they should be delivered in Paris at the price agreed upon, free of any charge or duty.

The manufacturer immediately complied, and asked the purchaser to be so good as to give the name to whom he should have the honor to address them.—The latter immediately wrote down—

St. Criq,
Directeur en Chef,
&c. &c. &c.

The former looked at the signature, and with the utmost *sang froid* said, "very well, Monsieur le Marquis, the box, with the jewels, will be in your hotel at Paris as soon as you arrive there, or I will forfeit the whole value."

The Marquis bowed,—returned to his hotel,—ordered post horses to his carriage,—drove off immediately,—and on crossing the frontier, described the box, offered the douaniers a reward if they detected it, and threatened a dismissal from office if they did not. The same notice had been dispatched to the several passes of the Jura, and the Marquis pushed on without delay to Paris. On arriving at his hotel, and on going into the principal *salon*, after making his toilet, the first thing that struck him was the identical box of jewels on the marble table. "A magician," thought he, "must have brought it here." No such thing—the *Chef* himself was the smuggler! The jeweller, immediately on his leaving, covered the box over, carried it to the hotel where the Marquis put up at Geneva, gave it in strict charge to the commissioner, who knew his business well,

and who took the opportunity of putting it, unobserved, with the other luggage, on the carriage. On arriving at Paris the servants observing it was a fancy article, carried it at once into the Marquis's usual sitting saloon.

SOCIETY OF GENEVA.

I HAVE heard it remarked in Paris that the Genevese were French frozen; that the ladies are good but never better; that they may have charms in conversation, but that you cannot persuade them to interchange opinions and phrases with that easy polite confidence in which consists the charm of conversation.

M. de Bonstetten says, "the ladies of Geneva are like young boarding-school girls in white frocks, sipping coffee out of brimful cups, and if a gentleman approaches them they cry out, 'take care, you will spoil my dress.'"

These manners are attributed to their small limited Sunday evening coteries. A Genevese writer expresses himself on this subject, by remarking, "These little societies have a most disagreeable effect on the manners of our ladies. Circumscribed within small circles, they only develope themselves, morally speaking, at forty,

and become agreeable at sixty, dying of old age at the time they begin to be amiable." The Genevese ladies are, however, women of merit; that which detracts from their amiability is, that their acts are those of strict duty and utility, that prevents amusing, and ends by almost disgusting you.

Their fellow citizen, Rousseau, (for whom they are now erecting a splendid monument) on speaking of the people of Geneva, says, "with a dogmatical and cold manner, they are spirited and impetuous, and have very ardent passions. In the simplicity of their attire they have grace and taste; both which they have in their conversation and manners. The men are less gallant than tender; the women have more sensibility than coquetry, and this sensibility gives to the best an agreeable and fine degree of spirit which goes to the heart and dispels all its *finesse*."

Müller says, "The Swiss of Geneva are regarded as beings who have descended from the clouds upon the Confederation. At all times worldly, proud, and civilized."

The French writers are the most severe upon

the Swiss of Geneva, Vaud, and all those in Switzerland who speak and write the same language. Like religious sects, the less their doctrines differ, the greater the animosity with which they regard each other.

M. Martin, observes, in his work on Switzerland, "The foreigner who visits Geneva for the first time, if he be admitted into the saloons of the aristocracy, is struck with singular amazement at the prejudices of the *noblesse*, and their mania for distinction; with the haughty disdain and pedantry of these republicans of base alloy. Riches will not suffice to justify *parvenus* entering the doors of a house in the Bourg de Four, which is the Faubourg St. Germain of Geneva. No, the man who, or whose wife or daughters do, must have a title, be an officer of State, and be descended from a great family."

In the spirited "*Lettres sur quelques Cantons Suisse*," just published, written also by a Frenchman, the author remarks, "The aristocracy of society which exists in Geneva exists in no other part of Europe — not even in Russia, is the *Esprit de Coterie* carried to such a ridiculous

and to such an exclusive extent; and although the evil is much greater in the form than in the intention, it creates a secret uneasiness, much more dangerous than if the cause were avowed and admitted.

"The *Esprit de Coterie* has exercised a fatal influence over the academy of Geneva, in which public literature has been, and is, in a deplorable condition. All its efforts have been directed to the sciences, from the sole reason that the aristocracy has its men of science but not its literary professors.

"Charles Didier, one of the distinguished writers of the day, whose early productions gave full promise of future greatness, is a Genevese, who in his native city could find no situation worthy of his talents, and consequently came to France to establish his literary denizenship. Under much the same feeling, the celebrated Professor Rossi quitted Geneva.

"The literary state of this city is in its decline. Geneva, which owes all it has to intelligence and study, will be no more than a central commercial bank, if it haste not to re-assume its intellectual

sceptre; and the only method by which this can be effected, is to break down on all sides this narrow *Esprit de Coterie* which exiles talent and paralyses all independence of thought. Geneva possesses all the solid elements of social splendor, patriotism, morality, learning, and wisdom.—It has distinguished men and women, of whom one alone, Madame Necker de Saussure, would suffice to honor a great country. All those elements are now closed up, and no agreeable fruit has the power to grow forth, while its useless excellencies are bound within that iron circle of intolerance—the *Esprit de Coterie.*"

The education of the female sex appears to have been carefully attended to; and if the few Genevese ladies that I have met with in society be a standard to judge the rest by, they may well pride themselves for superior acquirements and personal charms. I can, however, speak of them but imperfectly; for although I have met, and associated with both ladies and gentlemen from Geneva out of their own country, my intercourse with them in this town has been but limited, and as far as sociability and ease of

manners are in question, certainly not very flattering to them. A stiff precise formality prevails; and this, I believe, is all that can be charged against them;—they are intelligent and upright, yet neither winning in conversation nor fascinating in manners. But these manners dissipate in the sincerity of their domestic affections, and the excellence of their private character—which, after all, form the only real standard of worth. Madame de Stael being a Genevese was often sneered at as deficient in the graces and charms which she has so ravishingly described.

As to the opinion of a Parisian, relative to the Swiss character, it must be taken with little confidence. The society of Paris is of itself so *légère* and easy, and delightful, that long acquaintance with it destroys the full enjoyment of that of other countries.

RELIGION AND PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

VOLTAIRE and Gibbon, whatever they may have philosophically thought, must have been religious in Switzerland. There is an ever present Deity reigning in her mountains and valleys that creates devotion and religion, apart from dogmas, in every heart.

But exclusive of these, Switzerland is essentially religious—fanatically so in some districts; far less severe than formerly in others—particularly in Geneva, Vaud, Berne, and even Bâsle and Zurich.

The Catholics have a greater number of pastors than the Protestants, there being a priest for each one hundred and fifty of their flocks, while there is but one minister for seven hundred and twenty Protestants. There are seventy-two monasteries still existing, the chief of which are, Muri in Aargau, Enseidlen, Schwytz, that of the Jesuits in Freiburg, and

Pfeffers in St. Gall. There are besides, sixty convents and seventeen collegiate churches.

The clergy of Geneva are said to have abandoned the doctrines of Calvin and are rather at present of the Socinian faith, while their enemies say they are Deists. As preachers I can only say that they deliver excellent moral discourses, without meddling with the disputed points of Christian doctrine.

In Neuchatel, Berne, and Zurich, Protestantism is considered orthodox. In the Chatellanie of Landeron during the Reformation, it was put to the vote whether they should adopt the new doctrines or not, the votes being equal, and there being but one person in the town absent, he was sent for, and decided the mode of worship which subsists to this day by voting in favor of Catholicism.

The proportion of Catholics to Protestants is as two to three—that is eight hundred thousand of the former, one million two hundred thousand of the latter. In every part of Switzerland I have remarked the utmost urbanity between the members of each church. In Vaud

alone have I observed any religious intolerance and that was towards the Methodists.

The benefits of public instruction are much more widely diffused in the Protestant than in the Catholic Cantons; but of late years, extraordinary progress has been made towards instructing the youth in every part of the confederation.* The seed sown by Pestalozzi has produced a crop which is ripening fast; and the noble efforts of Fellenberg, founder of normal schools, and lately of the Cantonal governments, are supplying able masters to the whole country.

In the higher branches of literature and science,—in the support given by the Cantonal governments to primary, secondary, and collegiate instruction, Switzerland offers a far more liberal and extended example of public instruction than Prussia; however much that of the latter has been extolled.

* I have compiled full details of the moral statistics of Switzerland which includes education, and which will all appear in the forthcoming volumes of my work on general statistics. See also notes to My Note Book, at the end of this volume.

GOVERNMENT AND PRESENT CONDITION OF SWITZERLAND.

The Swiss confederation previous to the French invasion, in 1798, exhibited almost every form of government. Some of the thirteen old Cantons* were pure democracies, in which every man was a sovereign in his own house, and a legislator in the Langesmeinde: others were municipal Republics, in which the free citizens only of the chief towns elected the members of the legislature. In Berne, Freiburg, &c., patricians who held the supreme power, constituted aristocratic governments. The allies of the Cantons were small independent states;

* The three first Cantons who asserted their independence in 1307, were Schwytz, Uri, and Unterwalden, they are called the Waldstätten, or Forest districts. Luzern joined them in 1332; Zurich in 1351; Glaris and Zug in 1352; Berne in 1353; Freiburg and Soleothurn in 1481; Basle and Schaffhausen in 1501; and Appenzell in 1513.

either Republics as Geneva, St. Gall, the Valais, and the Grisons; or ecclesiastical principalities, such as the bishopric of Basle, the dominions of the Abbot of St. Gall, the Abbacies of Engelberg, the Pfeffers, and Ensiedlen. The state of Neuchatel and Valengin formed a principality whose sovereign was the King of Prussia. Some Cantons only sent deputies to the Federal Diet. The countries subject either to the Cantons or to their allies, were districts which had been conquered, or otherwise acquired from their former feudal lords, as Thurgau, Aargau, Toggenberg, and the county of Baden, and also the Valteline, the Italian bailliages, and the Pays de Vaud, purchased from the Dukes of Milan and Savoy. The inhabitants of these had no political rights; they were vassals under the absolute sway of their Republican masters, who sent to them governors (baillies), for the purpose of enriching themselves, rather than for the upright purpose of just administration. "Like all people-kings" says Müller "the most democratic Cantons were the most arbitrary in their conduct towards their subjects — they

showed themselves selfish, harsh, and haughty." They might be compared to the Republican slave-owners of the United States of America, or to the former Dutch government, in the East Indies.

The wars of independence, which the Swiss so heroically maintained against Austria, Burgundy, and France, were succeeded by their civil wars of religion,—of the peasants against the towns, —of subjects against their masters. The peace of Aarau, in 1712, put an end to those calamitous horrors, and eighty-six years of domestic and foreign peace followed. A period considered the most happy in Swiss history,—that of hospitality, simplicity, and industry. A period in which the Swiss, when compared with neighbouring states, certainly enjoyed a high degree of happiness and freedom. Their intrepidity and patriotism had gained them the deference of the most powerful foreign princes. Their respective administrations which assumed different forms, were marked with the character of order and moderation. Catholics and Protestant lived in neighbourly cordiality. As to liberty was rather that of municipalities and

corporations, than the equal civil rights of persons. In the democratic Cantons, it is true, every man was a legislator, but in the oligarchies, the people of the country were ruled by those of the towns. It must however be admitted that the latter generally conducted themselves on equitable principles. Zchokke observes: "They acted like scrupulous guardians. The magistrates, even the highest among them, received but small salaries; fortunes were made only in foreign service, or in the bailliages of subject districts. The public administration was conducted with order and economy; taxes were few and light. Although the laws were defective, and trials secret, the love of justice prevailed in the country; power wisely respected the rights of the humblest freeman. In the principal towns, especially the Protestant ones, wealth fostered Science and the Fine Arts. Zurich and Geneva distinguished themselves in this particular. Berne opened fine roads, raised public buildings, fostered agriculture in its fine territory, and yet contrived to hoard considerable

sums in its treasury.* But the old patriotism of the Swiss slumbered; it was replaced by selfishness, — the various states remained estranged from each other,—the military art, as a means of national defence, was neglected. Switzerland presented to strangers the aspect of an earthly paradise inhabited by happy and peaceful men, but strangers saw only the fine verdure of the plains, and not the inhospitable rocks behind; the majestic grandeur of the Alps, and not the ravages of the Avalanches. They admired the pomp of their Diets, without suspecting the discord that reigned therein; they beheld the trophies of William Tell, without perceiving degradation in the cabin of the peasant, they saw instruction spread in high names and lofty pretensions which served only to conceal narrow views and mean actions."

Switzerland was reposing unprepared and

* When the French entered Berne in 1798, they robbed the treasury of nearly seventy millions of francs, which they found in it. See Zchokke's History of the Swiss Nation, chap. 53.

watchless when the French revolution rolled over her Cantons. "Liberty," and more than all, "Equality," was proclaimed by the French leaders, who found numerous followers in Switzerland.* The peasants, however, and

* Zschokke, in the sketch he gives of his own life, alludes as follows to his impressions when at Paris during the commencement of the first revolution.

"The romantic brilliant image of the happiness of a nation under free institutions quickly vanished beneath the sober sadness of reality. As when he [Zschokke speaks of himself invariably in the third person,] had observed in Switzerland in the aristocratical towns, more absolute power, and in the subjected villages, less freedom for the peasant, than in monarchies, he felt little disposed also at that moment to admire the Republican form of government. This disenchantment of his hopes, which destroyed his highest dreams for the felicity of man, caused many bitter hours to the young traveller; he was often, while in Paris, tempted to exclaim, 'all is error—all deception; our race is full of cunning,—and although endowed with the power of speech, and with higher capacities than other animals, they know not even to what purpose to apply their boasted reason.'"

In speaking of Switzerland, at the time when he was a schoolmaster at Reichenau, again when acting as a commissioner, he observes—

"Tumults had already commenced in different parts of Switzerland; the ruin of the old confederated States appeared likely to ensue from their criminal dispositions, and the murderous intervention of France. The Grisons, as a confederated state, remained, however, foreign to their commotions. In the mean time, the new citizens of the free states of the Grisons, viewed

shepherds of the little Cantons, could not comprehend the meaning or the use of any

with as much displeasure, at Reichenau, the indifference of the confederation, as he beheld with anger the crimes and impostures of the French. The wooded and mountainous Cantons of the interior of Switzerland were still undisturbed, and prepared for self defence. He wrote to the Commander-in-chief, Aloys Reding, whom he had known in days of peace at Schwytz, and who had visited him at Reichenau, and proposed to enroll himself under his banner. Reding's answer, after the battles of Northenthurm, and Arth, announced to him, with deep regret, that the oath of confederation had been dissolved."

On having fled from Schwytz, Zschokke observes :—

"His friend, the learned Albrécht Stapfer, minister of public instruction, had the kindness to appoint the now unoccupied stranger to a place in his department. In this new situation he had still greater opportunities of perceiving the disastrous turn, which, partly from choice and partly from necessity, the revolution was then taking. The wisest and most clear-sighted persons declared that the constitution forced upon them was against the spirit of the people, and consequently untenable. But various were the opinions then formed as to the best mode of proceeding, and the best end to be derived. Those who had lost their places, who had been deprived of fortune, authority, and influence, as well as the clergy, who feared that their rights would be taken from them, were desirous of re-establishing by the aid of Austria and a tumultuous populace, the same order of things which had proved worthless both in days of peace, and in the hour of danger; while the greatest number of unprejudiced and intelligent men were equally opposed to the restoration of old, as to the duration of present abuses, and endeavoured to promote greater unity in the state governments, and to create an

other liberty than that which was to them the heir-loom of ages; but on the other hand, the

equality of liberties and rights, and an higher standard of education for the people of Switzerland. And although these men most cordially detested the power of the French army, yet they acknowledged the necessity of employing it as a shield against the efforts of the contending party, to excite deeds of sedition and revenge, and agreed that things must remain, at present, in their actual state.

"The noble-minded Stapfer,—the most enlightened men of the nation, Escher von der Linth, Usteri, Renyger, Fellenberg, Pestalozzi, and many others, who supported him in his philanthropic pursuits, admitted their new friend to their institutions as to the best manner of serving their country, during that momentous period. Stapfer believed that their efforts should be directed to awaken the minds of the people, by periodical papers, by the freedom of the press, by establishing (what had been already planned) committees of education for the people in all the different Cantons of Switzerland, and Literary Societies, which were to invite all persons of education to labor in the same cause.

"But the Executive Directory claimed, in a few months, his activity in another direction, and sent him, in May, 1799; with full powers, as Commissioner, to the disturbed, and still fermenting Canton of Unterwalden. The French troops had quell d there seven months before, by streams of blood and flames, a fearful insurrection. From the severity of the former commissioners, all the prisons were at that time, filled with the suspicious or the guilty; more than an hundred accused persons were set at liberty; many others languished in the dungeons of the fortress of Aarberg.

"The Helvetian delegate had a most difficult task to perform in that unhappy country. If he were enabled to accomplish it with

flame of revolution found among the subjects of the Swiss, materials ready for combustion. It first broke out in the states of the Bishop of Basle, between the bishop and his people; Austrian troops came to support the former, and

any degree of success, it was owing to the advice and assistance of his friend Reding, and other distinguished men of Waldstätte, who treated him with confidence. Without the extensive charities that he received, in consequence of his proclamations for suffering humanity, from every part of Switzerland, nay, even from remote countries in Europe, more than one half of the poor inhabitants would have been obliged to wander from their homes. To yield support and aid to the deserted country, he was often obliged to employ means which must, at the first glance, appear very singular. For instance, he, a protestant himself, erected an altar on the place of the destroyed chapel of St. Meinsod, to induce the pilgrims of Maria Enseidlen to return thither, when he found that a cloth manufactury ,and the labour of the turf bogs, did not alone suffice to supply with necessary food, the inhabitants of that poor valley; who had formally depended solely for sustenance upon the pilgrims.

"When the greatest difficulties were at length conquered, and the executive government was again placed in a state of legal activity, he directed his attention to the improvement of the schools in the small Cantons, which had been of late much neglected. Yet many beneficial institutions that were established in Uri, and through Reding's aid, in Schwytz, were, in later years, again destroyed,—and even Becker's book, entitled *North and Hilf's buch*, which was printed at the cost of the Helvetian government, and distributed gratis to thousands, was condemned by the priesthood as heretical, and suppressed.

French troops to assist the latter; and the result was, that the Bishop was obliged to run away, and a mock Republic was set up, under the classical name of Rauracia; which, after a few months existence, was merged into the great French Republic, and the country was given up to the agents of the directory.* Unparalleled calamities, foreign and civil wars, invasions by French, Austrians, and Russians,—years of blood, misery and shame, passed over the devastated regions of Switzerland. A semblance of central government was set up in imitation of the French Directory; it was subverted by the Austrians

When France, in the year 1798, interfered in the internal dissensions of the Swiss,—destroyed their ancient bond of union,—and stationed her armies on her mountains,—she seized several of the most distinguished inhabitants of the Helvetian Republics, and dragged them forcibly into her own remote provinces. She performed these acts of violence either to obtain large sums of money for the ransom of the prisoners, or to rid herself of men whose influence she dreaded over the minds of their countrymen, and whose opinions she knew to be inimical to the new established government. Zchokke has founded on this circumstance one of his most interesting romances, 'The Fugitive of the Jura,' which I am happy to say will soon appear in an English costume, from the pen of Miss Garnet, the translator of Frithiof's Saga.

and the insurgents; revolts succeeded revolts, until at last Bonaparte, having become First Consul of France, and having made peace with the rest of Europe, turned his attention towards Switzerland. Of the misfortunes of that country his hands were guiltless, and he was understood to have reprobated the unprincipled aggressions perpetrated by his predecessors. Indeed the Swiss war had been from the first unpopular in France, and was stigmatised by the appellation of *la guerre impie*. The Swiss weary of their dissentions referred them to Bonaparte's arbitration, and deputies from the various Swiss states and municipalities repaired to Paris. He listened to all, made himself acquainted with their respective claims, and, at last, in February, 1803, he gave out his plan for the constitution of Switzerland. The union of Switzerland into one single Republic, which had been enforced by the Directory, was discarded, as incompatible with the habits and character of the various populations. Switzerland was to constitute, as heretofore, a confederacy, the number of Cantons being raised to nineteen;

the six new ones to be formed out of the former allies and subjects of the Swiss,—namely, the Grisons, St. Gall, including the territories of the Abbot, Aargau, Thurgau, Vaud, and Tecino. This last Canton comprised the Italian bailliages of Lugano, Locarno, Bellinzond, &c., south of the Alps. The Valteline, however, remained annexed to the Italian Republic. Geneva and the Bishopric of Basle, having been incorporated with France, were not restored, and the Valais, another ally of the former federation, was set up as a separate Republic under the immediate protection of France, for the sake of the military road which was then being opened over the Simplon to Italy. "Thus," continues M. Zchokke, "Bonaparte gave us a lesson to settle in future our differences among ourselves, without having recourse to a mediator." In most respects, the provisions of the First Consul's mediation were liberal.

The Cantons were to have no subjects, towns, families, or exclusive privileges—all Switzers were declared equal in political rights, and in the free exercise of their industry, in any part

of the confederation in which they chose to settle. The general interests were entrusted to a Diet of Deputies from all the Cantons, whose president was the chief magistrate of the town where it was assembled for the time being. The Diet was to meet once every year, and to sit by turns in each of the towns of Berne, Freiburg, Soleure, Basle, Zurich, and Luzern. Every Canton was to have its own constitution, on the principle of equality of rights, and on the system of direct representation, with certain qualifications of property. The peculiar institutions of the old democratic Cantons, however, were not interfered with.*

Bonaparte urged the "impolicy of meddling with the traditional customs of that simple race of men,—that the small Forest Cantons had been the cradle of Swiss liberty,—that they contributed even now the principal title of Switzerland to the sympathy of Europe. Destroy those

The smaller districts of Switzerland aspired to become separate Cantons. This disposition to subdivision, the very reverse of the French system of centralization, is characteristic of Switzerland.

free, primitive commonwealths, the monument of five centuries, and you destroy your historical associations; you become a common people, with no claim for escaping the whirlpool of European politics."

The Act of Bonaparte's mediation was sworn to by all the Cantons. It remained in force for ten years, till the fall of Napoleon. Switzerland during this period, although surrounded by armies, remained in tranquillity. The commerce of the Cantons was shackled, like that of the other continental States, by the anti-social system of Napoleon; but industry, no longer cramped by the monopoly of trades and corporations, prospered; manufactures spread even on the slopes of the Alps; and the great canal of the Linth * a truly national work, uniting the lakes of Zurich and of Wallenstadt, was constructed. The Swiss were exempt from the conscription, but bound to furnish an effective corps of sixteen thousand men for the French service, as they had done in the time of the

* See Colony of the Linth, vol. ii.

French kings. The wars which followed required a much greater draught of men for the French army; and the more thinking people of Switzerland considered that independence of dangerous stability which had no security but the will of an ambitious and remorseless conqueror.

On the decline of Napoleon's power, Switzerland, still under his guardianship, had full right to support him, but not without being placed in hostility against the other powers of Europe.

Zurich at the head of the nine old Cantons proclaimed the general danger, and their Deputies assembled in that town. On the 29th of December, 1813, they declared the Act of Mediation extinct; and declared the independence of the old and new, in all nineteen, Cantons, requesting them to select representatives to establish a new federal compact. The invitation was acceded to, except by Berne, Freiburg, and Soleure, who demanded that the old federation of the thirteen Cantons should be restored. But the others

regardless of this opposition, proceeded to the formation of the federal compact on the part of the nineteen Cantons.*

A new federal pact was finally adopted by the Diet, in September, including three new Cantons, Geneva, the Valais, and Neuchatel. The confederation thus formed, consisted of twenty-two Cantons. The ratification was delayed by local jealousies. The Congress of Vienna in March 1815, assumed the settlement of the territorial limits of the Swiss Cantons. The possessions of the *ci-devant* Bishop of Basle were annexed, as a compensation for losses, to Berne, with the understanding that Berne should receive deputies from its new accession of territory into its councils. The

The new Cantons sent deputies to the allied sovereigns. Vaud had an influential advocate in the person of General de Laharpe, who had been tutor to the Emperor Alexander; and it has been since ascertained that that sovereign saved the Cantons of Vaud and Aargau from falling again under the rule of Berne.

The new Cantons which had been elevated from vassalage to independence felt the natural benefit of the happy change, and they at least had the right to consider Napoleon the author of their independence; while the old Cantons which had lost influence and emolument, were consequently discontented.

claims of other Cantons were settled by allowances of money. A pension was decreed to the abbot of St. Gall, which he declined to accept. Geneva received a small extension of territory from the lake towards the Jura, with the town of Carouge and its trifling portion of Savoy.

On the 7th of August, 1815, the new Federal Pact was agreed and sworn to by the deputies of all the Cantons. The five Great Powers acknowledged and guaranteed the integrity, neutrality, and inviolability, of the twenty-two Cantons, within their limits as then fixed.

By this Pact, the Cantons may be divided into three classes :—

First. — The old democratic Cantons — viz., Schwytz, Uri, Glaris, Zug, Underwalden, Appenzell, the Valais, and the Grisons—the two latter having but one vote in the Diet, but distinct governments. In the first six, the Langesmeinde, or assembly of all the male people above a certain age, forms the supreme power. The two latter have municipalities and deputies—the Grisons may, however, be considered the most democratic.

Second.—Those in which aristocratic institutions continue to exist — viz., Berne, Freiburg, Soleure, Zurich, Luzern, Basle, and Schaffhausen, in which corporations of trades and patrician families held predominate sway, and taxed the industry of the country.

Third.—Those styled the new Cantons—viz., Geneva, in which a system was adopted to counteract the democratic ascendancy, Vaud, &c.

In all these forms of government, there was, especially in the second and third, ample scope for arbitrary measures; and although symptoms of discontent had been frequently manifested, the country appeared tranquil, and was in reality prosperous, until the Italian Canton of Tecino rose, in consequence of the speech of M. Luvini, the Syndic of Lugano, who, returning thanks to the meeting on the first of May, the day of election of its municipal officers, spoke with energy in support of a reform in the constitution; the assembly assented with loud acclamations, and the speech was printed and extensively distributed—all the communal assemblies were roused by the example of Lugano. The Executive Council,

always before overawed by party, refused to oppose the people. The Legislative Council assembled as usual on the seventh of June. The President Lotti opened the Session by a speech urging reform. The Executive Council, by virtue of its right of initiative, proposed a liberal constitution. The project was adopted, after mature deliberation, by the Legislative Council, and then submitted to the general assemblies of the circles. It was unanimously sanctioned and proclaimed.

The revolution was brought about in Tecino, without any interruption of public order, before the events of Paris could possibly be foreseen. Insurrections broke out over all the new Cantons in November and December. In Aargau and Vaud, the obstinacy of the then existing governments, occasioned serious disturbances; — the people repaired *en masse* to the towns, and compelled their respective councils to convoke the assemblies of circles, and to appoint deputies to frame a new constitution. When these measures were adopted, the people returned home quietly. In Thurgau and St. Gall the Executive yielded

at once, and directed a reform of the constitution.

The opposition in the aristocratic Cantons was more obstinate. The towns were now, however, divided among themselves; most of the citizens demanded direct election and impartial appointments to offices. The communes on the banks of the lake of Zurich* were the most turbulent in the movement. At Uster, eight thousand men, who assembled, signed a petition to the Executive-chief, demanding a reform of the constitution of 1814, and an equal right for town and country. The great Council at length nominated a committee to draw up a system of direct election. In Schwytz turbulence, and in Basle devastation and blood-shed, were likely to destroy the peace of the country; but there, as well as at Neuchatel, tranquillity eventually prevailed. Berne, now the most liberal and always the best governed of the old Cantons provided against the

During the last forty years these communes have arisen several times against the privileges of the town of Zurich, especially in 1797 and 1804, when being put down by force, they were treated with great severity, and executions and confiscations took place. (See Zschokke's History.)

effect of revolution in time, and all the other Cantons have adopted more liberal constitutions.*

The harmony and liberality which now prevail generally in Switzerland are, however, threatened with the dangerous interference of the German governments. Should France be so impolitic as to enter into their views respecting the resort of workmen and other foreign subjects to Switzerland, and especially to Berne, where they find themselves free and independent, the happy valleys of Helvetia may not only be again subjected to devastation, but the peace of Europe may be endangered by the resistance of a brave and patriotic people. The Federal Diet is composed of men who possess virtue and firm ideas of national rights—nor is it likely that the present King of Prussia, even absolute as his government is, will tamely suffer the invasion of Switzerland. All that negotiation can do will, however, be attempted, to prevail on the Diet

* See detailed constitution of the individual Cantons. "Resources and Statistics of Nations," vol. i. p. 398, also Military Force and Revenue in that work, vol. ii. and Notes to My Note Book, No. 20

to adopt severe measures in regard to the subjects of Austria and Germany.

Prussia, has also in view, although she may appear inactive, the extension of her political league, so far as to include Switzerland, within her commercial cordon. This deeply contrived policy, of which Russia has long been the great, yet secret agent, forms the most dangerous obstacle to the progress of European liberty.

Industry and peace are meantime promoting the national prosperity of Switzerland,—and the schoolmaster is diffusing general and powerful intelligence over this sublime country.

NOTES TO MY NOTE BOOK.

VOLUME I.

I.—BOULOGNE.—*Page* 31.

HAVING spent a few weeks during the bathing season of 1835 at Boulogne, we were astonished at the improvement in its aspect as regarded cleanliness, and at the Royal Hotel, where we put up, we had every comfort that we could have had at Hastings or any Sea-bathing place in England. In the upper town, and in parts of the lower, there is still much of the nastiness complained of in the text.

I had, when at Boulogne, the opportunity of examining in detail the management and course of instruction at the admirable institution which owes its reputation altogether to the excellent Abbé Hafriengue. Boys of all religious denominations are admitted, educated, lodged, and well boarded for 1,000 frs. or 40*l.* per annum. The present number of pupils, French and English, amount to nearly 400; the masters to 20. The course of instruction is so general, and so useful—embracing not only Latin, Greek, and Hebrew (if required by the scholars' parents)

but History, natural and political; Geography, Astronomy, Arithmetic, Euclid, practical Mathematics, &c. that I am convinced he who is educated at the Academy of Père Hafriengue, within the ci-devant Bishop's palace of the upper town of Boulogne, will be a more intelligent, if not as classical a scholar, and far better prepared for becoming either a legislator, or a man of business, adapted to the various pursuits of life, than if he spent double the same time, either at Oxford or Cambridge. This opinion may be sneered at: nevertheless it is true.

II.—DUTCH FISHERIES.—*Page* 196.

WHATSOEVER relates to the elements of power, and especially those of a country like Holland with so few internal natural resources must always be interesting to the political economist, and should be to the statesman. That a country like Holland, notwithstanding all the vicissitudes of wars which for a long time nearly annihilated her trade, destroyed her navy, and a great part of her commercial shipping, besides depriving her of her colonies, should still maintain prosperous and wealthy power, can only be accounted for from the characteristics of the people as alluded to in the text. The commerce and financial affairs of the Netherlands are consequently subjects of most instructive inquiry.

During my excursions and residence in the Netherlands, Prussia, and the German States, my object was chiefly statistical inquiry, and on this subject, I collected then, and since that time by the assistance of friends and exten-

sive correspondence, voluminous materials for my work on the "Resources and Statistics of Nations."

In illustration of the present work, which was written as the impressions of the day were made, and consequently arranged on no systematic plan, and to avoid introducing to the interruption of readers who dislike unornamented facts, statistics in the text, I have arranged in this and the following notes, sketches of useful information relative to the countries over which I have travelled.

The following is a sketch of the herring fishery (not including that along the shores it would appear), drawn up on the 5th of February, 1835, by one of the first houses in Rotterdam, that of Messrs. Turhng andTavenraat.

FITTED OUT FROM	SHIPS.	RECEIVED.				2nd VOYAGE.			3rd VOYAGE.			TOGETHER.		
	1st. Voyage.	by Small Stoops.		by the Ships.		Ships.	Received.		Ships.	Received.		Voyages	Received.	
		lasts.	barls.	lasts.	barls.		lasts.	barls.		lasts.	barls.		lasts.	barls
Vlaardingen	78	51	4 3/8	1,067	7 1/2	54	724	2	7 one lost	59	1	139	1,902	— 7/8
Maassluys	16	15	2 7/8	270	13	7 one lost	110	8	—	—	—	23	396	9 7/8
Delftshaven.....	1	—	5 1/4	6	13	1	18	7	1	3	11	3	29	8 3/4
Zwartewaal	4		3 3/4	69	12	4	24	13	—	—	—	8	95	— 3/4
Middleharnas	1	3	1 1/8	5	11	1	14	3	—	—	—	2	23	— 1/8
Enkhuyzen	4	10	5 1/4	52	12	4	76	1	—	—	—	8	140	4 3/4
De Ryp	5	3	3 1/4	66	6	3	25	4	—	—	—	8	94	13 3/8
Amsterdam.....	7	3	12 1/4	92	10	3	64	13	—	—	—	10	161	7 3/8
Together, 1834	116	87	10	1,634	1/2	77	1,058	9	8	62	12	201	2,843	3 1/2
in 1833	108	ships										165	2,552	10
1832	117											171	2,504	3 6/8
1831	130											197	2,177	9

One last contains fourteen barrels —*Rotterdam, February* 1835.

The following extracts from their letter accompanying the above statement, illustrate further the condition of the Dutch fisheries.—

"We beg to hand you a summary sketch of the herring fishery of 1834, which will be found to have yielded a fair result. The real profits of the herring fishery are still, as they always have been, disproportioned to the capital employed: and to the chances contingent to the risk; but the major part of the owners being engaged in various trades, dependent on, and connected with shipping, a fair remuneration is derived, which compensates for the less profitable result of the fisheries.

"'The Herring Fishery is still of considerable importance, giving occupation and support to the labouring classes, as it may be safely assumed that out of the sum of 600,000 florins (50,000*l.* sterling), which for the last five years has been drawn out of the sea, nearly two-thirds are distributed among the seamen, ship-builders, smiths, rope-makers, &c., while, at the same time, a similar proportion, say two-thirds of the above 600,000 florins, is derived from the trade in fish with other nations. It is a mistake to suppose that the herring ships are employed in other trades after the fishing season; this used to be the case, but has ceased, on account of the general low rate of freights. At Haardingen and Harlingen, the newest and largest vessels (called Hookers) begin to be fitted out in December and January for the Cod Fishery, which is an important branch, partly on account of the support it affords during the winter season to the labouring classes, but chiefly as forming a nursery for our seamen, who being engaged in this severe employment from their

earliest youth, acquire habits of patient endurance, which renders the sea as it were, their native and favourite element. For some years past, however, this branch has been far from productive to the owners, nor have the seamen derived from it a proportionate remuneration, owing to the wretched prices which have been made for the fish, both in this country and in Belgium: while the bait indispensably required for this Fishery (being a description of Nine Eye, caught in our inland rivers) is become expensive and scarce.

"In the winter of 1833-34, the number of ships from Haardingen and Maas Sluys, amounted to forty-five—this year only to thirty-five, and the present prospect is far from bright. Besides the cod fishery the same vessels are afterwards employed in the herring fishery which is farther carried on from the end of March to the beginning of June by the herring hookers—this is not the case, however, at Amsterdam and Enkhuyzen, because abundant occupation is found for the crews in the fisheries of the Zuyder Zee; the usual quantity derived from this branch may be estimated at from fifty to one hundred barrels (tonnen), the average value being about 15 florins (25*s.*) per barrel. This branch is, however, of greater importance for Middleharnas, Pernis, and Blackwall, where about thirty sloops are yearly engaged from the month of March till October, performing usually two voyages within that period, and producing from one hundred to two hundred barrels each voyage, worth from 12 florins (20*s.*) to 20 florins (33*s.*) per barrel, and occasionally 25 florins (41*s.*8*d.*) as was the case last year. From October to March these vessels are engaged in fishing for haddock and cod, and it

is supposed that they are fully better engaged in this branch than is the case with the winter trade carried on at Haardingen, before mentioned.

"The fisheries, which fifty years ago were carried on with so much success on the coast of Iceland, and in which more than one hundred hookers from Haardingen and Maas Sluys were engaged, have been nearly abandoned, even since the high and prohibitory duties laid upon foreign fish in France, there being now and for some years past only ten to fifteen vessels so employed. In 1834 the ten ships so engaged brought home only about two hundred lasts (four hundred tons) of fish, which realized a price of 210 florins (17*l.* 10*s.*) per last, but in abundant seasons the price is generally lower.

"The northern whale fisheries have proved total failures, and it is to be hoped that the trial now making in the South sea may prove more successful.

"The fisheries carried on along the coast for the supply of fresh fish have been declining, and the population of the fishing villages is generally reduced to the most abject poverty. Some years ago a livelihood was obtained out of the herring fishery by the inhabitants of Katwyk, Scheveningen, and Noordwyk, who used to employ about fifty vessels in that trade, fishing on the Yarmouth banks from the 15th of September till December; but in latter years this branch has been very unproductive, notwithstanding the high prices which were realized for the cured fish at home.

"The fishing stations in the Zuyder Zee are generally in a more thriving condition, owing to the fresh herrings caught there in the greatest abundance during the latter end of Autumn, and throughout the winter; and although

often sold for nearly nothing, it affords a subsistence to the fishermen, particularly during the last two years, since when, the French fishing boats, to the number of one hundred to one hundred and fifty, have been in the habit of buying the fish at good prices, and importing them into France as French caught fish. The course of the herrings cannot, however, be much depended on, for it is notorious that twenty-five years ago these fish used to be caught in the same prodigious quantity in the Zealand waters, where they are now not to be met with at all.

"The anchovy fishery in the Zuyder Zee is a very profitable branch, and many thousand barrels are annually cured at Amsterdam, Marke, Hardenwyk, and Monnikendam, and sold for exportation. Though not so abundant as in former years, the prices obtained last season, 1834, of 20 to 22 florins (33*s.* 4*d.* to 36*s.* 8*d.*) per barrel, gave a capital profit. At Bergen op Zoom, Tholen, &c., this branch has failed for some years past."

III.—DUTCH CANALS.—*Page* 211.

The Flemings commenced opening canals in the twelfth century; even as early as that period their country became the centre of the trade Between the Northern and Southern States of Europe. Mr. Phillips observes with great truth, in his History of Inland Navigation, that Holland "is intersected with innumerable canals. They may be compared in number and size to our public roads and highways: and as the latter with us are continually full of

coaches, chaises, waggons, carts, and horsemen, going from and to the different cities, towns, and villages; so, on the former, the Hollanders, in their boats and pleasure barges, their treckschuyts and vessels of burthen, are continually journeying and convey commodities for consumption or exportation from the interior of the country to the great cities and rivers. An inhabitant of Rotterdam may, by means of these canals, breakfast at Delft and the Hague, dine at Leyden, and sup at Amsterdam, or return home again before night. By them, also, a most prodigious inland trade is carried on between Holland and every part of France, Flanders, and Germany. When the canals are frozen over, they travel on them with skaits, and perform long journeys in a very short time; while heavy burthens are conveyed in carts and sledges, which are then as much used on the canals as on our streets.

"The yearly profits produced by these canals are almost beyond belief; but it is certain, and has been proved, that they amount to more than 250,000*l.* for about four hundred miles of inland navigation, which is 625*l.* per mile, the square surface of which mile does not exceed two acres of ground; a profit so amazing that I wonder other nations should not imitate what has been found so advantageous.

"The canals of Holland are generally sixty feet wide, and six deep, and are carefully kept clean; the mud, as manure, is very profitable; as the canals are generally levels, of course locks are not wanted. From Rotterdam to Delft, the Hague, and Leyden, the canal is quite level, but is sometimes affected by strong winds. For the most part, the canals are elevated above the fields or the country, to enable them to carry off the water, which in winter

inundates the land, To drain the water from Delftland, a province not more than sixty miles long, they employ two hundred wind-mills in spring time to raise it into the canals. All the canals of Holland are bordered with dams or banks of immense thickness, and on these depends the security of the country from inundation; of course it is of great moment to keep them in the best repair; to effect which there is a kind of militia, and in every village is a magazine of proper stores and men, whose business it is to convey stores and rubbish in carts to any damaged place. When a certain bell rings, or the waters are at a fixed height, every man repairs to his post. To every house or family there is assigned a certain part of the bank, in the repair of which they are to assist. When a breach is apprehended, they cover the banks all over with cloth and stones."

According to the Decennial Budget, for the ten years ending 1830, the annual salaries of the officers of the water-staat and public works, chiefly canals and sluices, amounted for the Kingdom of the Netherlands to 199,438,030 florins. The King who takes upon himself by usage to advance money from the Treasury for public works when no provision has been made for them, advanced on his personal responsibility three millions of florins, for carrying on the works of the great Northern canal.

IV.—FREDERICK'S-OORD.—*Page* 243.

I HAVE stated in speaking of this pauper colony that

as a speculative project no profit can be expected. I have since writing the text, seen documents which convince me further of the truth of what I then said. To purchase fertile lands, at two to three florins per acre, and to sell them afterwards at advanced prices to people who individually cultivate those lands, hold out certain prospects of gain, which the attempt at realizing profit from bog and turf lands by pauper labour does not. As a benevolent project the colony may be viewed in quite a different light. It cannot, however, even in that character be compared to Hofwyl.

V.—COMMERCE OF HOLLAND.—*Page* 262.

Forced Advantage extended by the Government to Dutch Shipping.

In admitting all the necessaries of life, especially corn, nearly free of duty into her ports, Holland has long observed a wise plan of commercial policy. A spirit of monopoly in regard to her carrying trade, and her commerce in spices and other articles, has, however, always and still continues to prevail.

The following statement relative to the Tea trade and freights drawn up by the same respectable house that forwarded the sketch of the Fisheries, will show the state of that commerce, and also the forced profits at the expense of the whole community given to the Dutch over Foreign Ship-owners.

The annual consumption of Tea in Holland is usually estimated

at about 40,000 chests, the supply of which for some time past has been in a great measure carried on by American houses; the Netherlands' Trading Company having imported only three cargoes within the last twenty-four months, while during the same period only one direct cargo has been received on private account' nor is it very likely that either the Trading Company or the Dutch merchants will, under present circumstances, be induced to become importers, so that the probability is, that for our future supplies we shall have chiefly to depend upon the resources resulting to British commerce from the unrestricted trade to China.

" A cargo of Tea for this market ought to be made up as nearly as can be in the following assortments, viz.

350 à 400	Quarter Chests		Bohea,
900 - 1000	..	..	Congo,
300 - 400	..	...	Campoy,
800 - 1000	..	..	Souchong,
250 - 350	..	..	Pecco,
200 - 300	..	..	Songlo and Twankay,
250 - 300	..	..	Hyson Skin,
400 - 500	..	..	Young Hyson,
450 - 550	..	..	Hyson,
250 , 350	..	..	Gunpowder and Imperial,
100 - 200	..	..	Soulang,

and as a general rule we must recommend that the Teas be of the best quality and as fresh as possible, secondary and aged Teas being very difficult of sale.

The following prices are now paying, viz.

	cts.	cts.			Dutch Ship.		Foreign Ship.			
Bohea.....	70 à	85	equal to a nett remittance		$10\frac{8}{11}$ à	$13\frac{1}{3}$	or $9\frac{7}{11}$ à	$12\frac{1}{24}$	pr. lb.	English.
Congo	100 -	115	..	..	$16\frac{8}{11}$ -	$18\frac{10}{14}$	- $14\frac{9}{11}$ -	$17\frac{4}{11}$	..	..
Campoy	100 -	130	.	..	$15\frac{8}{19}$ -	$20\frac{2}{19}$	- $13\frac{1}{4}$ -	$18\frac{8}{19}$	..	..
Souchong	100 -	175	..	..	$15\frac{8}{19}$ -	$28\frac{1}{7}$	- $13\frac{1}{4}$ -	$26\frac{1}{5}$	..	..
Pecco.....	210 -	320	..	..	$34\frac{5}{11}$ -	$58\frac{7}{15}$	- $32\frac{1}{4}$ -	$51\frac{3}{10}$	..	..
Songlo and Twankay	125 -	160	..	..	$19\frac{8}{11}$ -	$25\frac{2}{9}$	- $17\frac{1}{3}$ -	$23\frac{4}{9}$	..	..
Hyson skin.....	120 -	150	..	..	$18\frac{7}{9}$ -	24	- $16\frac{2}{20}$ -	$21\frac{2}{3}$	..	..
Young Hyson	155 -	185	..	..	$24\frac{4}{9}$ -	$30\frac{4}{9}$	- $22\frac{11}{21}$ -	$27\frac{5}{7}$	..	..
Hyson	190 -	220	..	..	31 -	$36\frac{1}{5}$	- $28\frac{2}{3}$ -	$33\frac{7}{8}$	..	..
Gunpowder	260 -	280	..	..	$32\frac{1}{3}$ -	$46\frac{4}{7}$	- $30\frac{5}{53}$ -	$44\frac{1}{21}$	..	..

We subjoin a calculation shewing the advantage of importing Tea into this country by a Dutch, in preference to a Foreign ship, and have besides to observe that in chartering a Dutch flag, care must be taken to ascertain that the ship has been virtually built in the Netherlands, Colonial and Foreign built ships, though under the Dutch flag, being liable to the same duties as Foreign vessels.

STATEMENT shewing the difference on a Cargo of 4,600 quarter chests of Tea, viz · 1,250 quarter chests Bohea and Congo, and 3,350 quarter chests of other kinds imported into Holland by Dutch and by Foreign ships.

FOREIGN SHIP.

	fl. ct.	fl. ct.
Freight at 8*l.* per ton of 10 quarter chests £3,680 0 0 — at 12 fl.	44,160.—	
Duties on 1,250 qr. chests, Bohea & Congo 3,350 " " other kinds	50,553.26	
Total freight and duty, florins		94,413.36

DUTCH SHIP.

Freight at 290 fl. and 15 per cent per last of 21 quarter chests	73,052.38	
Duties on 1,250 qr. chests, Bohea & Congo 3,350 other kinds	18,047,23	
Total, freight and duty, florins		91,099.61
Difference in favour of Dutch Ship		3,313.75

The Dutch ship has the double advantage, of duty being so much lower and freight so much higher. We take leave also to submit a *pro forma* Account Sales, shewing all the charges incident to a cargo imported by a Dutch Bottom.

Account Sales of 4,600 quarter chest of Tea at Rotterdam, imported in a Dutch Bottom	fl.	cts.
	491,635.—	
Brokerage one per cent	4,916,35	
		486,718.65

Charges.

Freights as in the preceding calculation	f. 73,052.38	
Duty Inwards,—ditto—ditto	18,047.23	
Landing, sampling, coopering, delivery	9,200.—	
* Brokerage 1 per cent.	4,916.35	
Fire, Insurance and Bill Brokerage, 3p. m.	1,560.—	
Commission and Delcredere, 3 per cent	14,601.56	
		121,277.52

Nett Proceeds—florins.. 365,441.13

At Ex. f. 12 ..... £ 30,453.87

* If sold by public sale double Brokerage.

Tonnage, and Principal Imports and Exports of Holland.—1832.

Entered.		Tonnage.	Cleared.	
Vessels.	Tons.		Vessels.	Tons.
5,749	661,670.		5,830	681,717.

DIRECT TRADE WITH CANTON.

Importations into Canton.		Exportations from Canton.	
Quantity.	Value in Spanish Piastres.	Quantity.	Value in Spanish Piastres
Polmittes .... 1,520 pieces ..	48,640	25,891 chests of tea of all sorts	503,000
Tissue of Cotton 187 do.	935	113 chests of ginger	465
Geneva ..... 3,375 bottles ..	844	165 piculs of Cassia	1,980
		1,600 packets of Rattans....	280
		Gum lac	3,000
Total.....	50,419	Total	509,625

PORT OF AMSTERDAM.

Account of some of the principal articles, specifying their quantities and values, imported into Amsterdam, by sea, during the years 1830 and 1831.

DENOMINATION OF MERCHANDISE.	Description of Package	1830. Quantity.	1830. Value in Dutch Money.	1830. Value in Sterling.	1831. Quantity.	1831. Value in Dutch Money.	1831. Value in Sterling.
			Florins.	£		Florins	£.
COFFEE ... East India	Bags	84,470	1,067,437	13,8953	121,500	2,709,590	225,398
COFFEE ... West India	Casks	2,270	1436,120	6,348	1,190	599,880	24,990
	Bags	50,770	3,096,670	238,000	24,280	1,942,400	161,861
	Casks	21,500	3,310,068	2251,634	19,850	3,223,610	268,634
	Chests	8,820	579,474	848-90	17,600	1,089,628	90,219
	do.	1,060	218,625	18,290	1,960	255,150	21,263
SUGAR ... Mauritius	Bags	11,400	191,590	15,966	27,800	486,500	40,540
	Chests	1,800	122,130	10.177			
	Canisters	2,530	126,879	10,573	7,430	457,873	38,156
SUGAR ... East India	Bags	6,610	110,389	9,200			
	do.	3,740	466,752	38,896	1,400	178,800	14,900
COTTON	American	40	4,610	390	300	31,080	2,605
WOOL	Egyptian	4,270	609,756	50,813	2,590	348,837	29,070
	West India	490	44,120	3,677	666	63,610	5,300
	East India	5,520	1,033,620	86,135	5,220	963,743	80,312
TOBACCO	Maryland	5,330	673,712	56,143	6,056	821,469	68,455
	Virginia	580	72,007	6,000	180	23,550	1,963
	Kentucky	48,400	577,125	48,960	42,000	493,500	41,125
HIDES	No.	1,150	35,220	2,935	2,060	118,244	9,854
PEPPER	Bags	7,570	487,129	40,594	5,830	408,508	34,042
RICE	Casks	8,800	100,200	8,356	2,960	4,576	381
	Bags	10,870			3,170		
LINSEED	Lasts	or 114,133 quarters.	225,000	18,757	or 33,225 quarters.	656,190	54,683
		10,940			13,300		
WHEAT	do.	or 114,870 quarters.	3,183,340	265,295	or 139,650 quarters.	4,402,300	366,858
		15,340			18,290		
RYE	do.	or 161,070 quarters.	2,515,760	209,646	or 192,045 quarters.	3,840,900	320,075
		2,770			290		
BARLEY	do.	or 29,085 quarters.	396,110	33,009	or 3,045 quarters.	42,340	3,528

The value of imports for 1832, are stated at .. £4,794,000 sterling.
Exports 3,081,000

SHIPS entering the Port of AMSTERDAM during the years 1830 and 1831, specifying the countries whence they came.

COUNTRIES.	1830.	1831.
Ports of Norway and North Sea	788	601
Baltic and Archangel.....	801	565
Mediterranean, France, Spain, and Portugal	105	99
South America	10	10
North do.	57	40
West Indies.....	95	77
Great Britain	114	209
East Indies and China	26	23
Total.....	1,996	1,624

Neither the tonnage nor the crews of these vessels are stated in the returns sent me.

ROTTERDAM.

STATEMENT of the PRINCIPAL IMPORTS into, and STOCKS IN HAND, at ROTTERDAM.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	Description of Package.	IMPORTS. 1833.	IMPORTS. 1834.	STOCK. 1st January 1833.	STOCK. 1st January 1834.
COFFEE — East India.....	bags.	100,633	251,691	75,250	128,146
West India	bags. ch.	23,567-367	46,596-360	5,900	17,000
SUGAR — Surinam	hhds.	2,965	1,360	691	80
East India.....	baskets.	19,031	37,553	9,523	8,374
Brazil White.....	chests.	618	36	419	—
—— Brown	chests.	772	—	618	—
Havannah White....	boxes.	2,066	2,575	729	214
——— Yellow ..	boxes.	3,493	5,060	371	1,058
Manilla, Bengal, &c.	bags and mats.	15,036	12,578	664	1,939
RICE — Carolina	casks.	11,200	9,150	240	—0
East India.....	bags.	43,250	38,950	10,200	3,55
COTTON — American	bales.	5,295	10,390	419	—
Surinam and Nickerie	bales.	2,012	2,046	498	—
Other kinds	bales.	6,755	13,349	587	200
TOBACCO — Maryland	hhds.	7,527	7,621	4,280	6,394
Virginia.....	hhds.	50	2,520	1,527	2,111
Kentucky	hhds.	80	59	809	—
Portorico	rolls.	—	10,200	3,000	13,200
HIDES — Buenos-Ayres, and other kinds	ps.	25,413	66,038	5,082	7,331
East India.....	ps.	14,002	35,887	4,742	5,185
PEPPER	bags.	4,483	3,800	2,000	983
TEA	chests.	19,365½	10,850½	700½	3,000½
TIN — Banca	slabs.	27,899	24,554	8,788	4,127

TRADE OF BATAVIA.

The Dutch commerce in and with this island has greatly increased during the last five years. But all my efforts while at Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and the Hague, were unsuccessful in procuring any statistical information on which to establish data. Previously to the revolution of 1830, the exports of manufactured goods from the Netherlands direct, especially in articles of cotton, woollen, linen, and iron, the manufactures of Belgium, amounted to very considerable value. England, and Prussia, at present furnishes most of the goods imported into Batavia. The Americans also carry thither merchandize, but it is supposed that these goods are carried in the first instance from England. Nothing can exceed the jealous silence which the Netherlands' trading company observe relative to the trade with Batavia and Japan. It is, however, evident that this commerce is greatly increasing, from the number of new ships built since 1830, in Holland, for the trade with her Eastern colonies. The following tables calculated in round numbers from commercial circulars and other documents exhibit the annual trade of Batavia taking the average of three years ending 1830—

IMPORTS INTO BATAVIA.	Florins.
Cotton Manufactures, Netherlands	3,100,000
Specie and precious Metals	2,720,000
Cotton manufactures, England	1,800,000
Wines	1,150,000
Copper, Japan	985,000
Cotton piece goods, Bengal and Madras	850,000
Opium, Levant	720,000
Provisions (from England)	520,000
Gambier (terra Japonica)	480,000
Tripang (Holothurion)	380,000
Silk and Cotton piece Goods, Chinese manufacture	372,000
Brandy and Geneva	320,000
Opium, Bengal	315,000
Marine Stores	294,500
Woollen manufactures, Netherlands	250,000
Rattans	250,000
Iron from the Netherlands	145,000
Lead	75,000
Copper, Europe	44,000
Iron from England	43,000
Cotton Yarn from England	42,000
Iron from Sweden	24,000
Steel from the Netherlands	23,000
Cotton manufactures, French	18,000
Woollen do.——, English and French	16,000
Steel from England	13,000
Do.—— Sweden	5,700
Cotton Yarn from the Netherlands	1,200
Articles not specified	3,421,000
Total	18,377,400

EXPORTS FROM BATAVIA.	Florins.
Coffee (450,000 piculs of 136lbs. each)	8,250,000
Sugar (80,000 piculs)	1,360,000
Rice (460,000 piculs)	1,300,000
Specie and precious metals	1,270,000
Tin (19,800 piculs)	870,000
Indigo (1,250 piculs)	561,000
Birds' nests	540,000
Java Tobacco	510,000
Piece Goods	500,000
Cloves	310,000
Nutmegs (1,700 piculs)	225,000
Pepper (8,000 piculs)	150,000
Rattans (32,000 piculs)	140,000
Salt (25,000 piculs)	120,000
Mace (620 piculs)	98,000
Japan and Sandal wood (7,000 piculs)	96,000
Arrack (530 piculs)	86,000
Tortoiseshell	55,000
Hides	54,000
Camphor, Japan	43,500
Turmerick (5,500 piculs)	42,500
Horses 380 (to the Isle of France)	35,000
Articles not specified	3,140,000
Total	19,759,000

The Ships and amount of Tonnage, Inwards and Outwards, under different flags, at Batavia were in 1828, as follows —

FLAGS.	INWARDS.		OUTWARDS.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
	No.	No.	No.	No.
Netherlands	801	22,842	843	22,844
English	54	5,399	68	7,389
American.....	14	1,043	19	1,558
Chinese	8	402	8	402
Siamese	9	248	7	154
Other Asiatic	55	402	26	406
Portuguese	4	486	4	481
Spanish	3	252	2	210
French.....	8	346	9	431
Russian	1	76	1	76
Hamburgh	1	68	1	68
Danish.....	1	42	1	42
Swedish	1	33	1	33
Total	960	31,639	990	33,913

Countries with which Batavia carries on Trade, and the Value of the Annual Import and Export Trade on the average of three years ending 1830.

COUNTRIES.	IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
	Merchandize.	Specie.	Total.	Merchandize.	Specie.	Total.
	florins.	florins.	florins.	florins.	florins.	florins.
Netherlands	6,500,000	1,011,000	7,511,000	9,200,000	280,000	9,480,000
Eastern Archipelago	3,526,500	793,500	4,320,000	4,300,000	500,000	4,800,000
England	2,250,000	"	2,250,000	210,000	170,000	380,000
Japan	1,150,000	"	1,150,000	302,000	24,500	326,500
United States	325,000	697,200	1,022,200	125,000	"	125,000
Bengal	750,500	10,500	761,000	78,000	2,000	80,000
China	590,500	5,500	596,000	1,500,000	90,000	1,590,000
France	140,000	"	140,000	110,000	8,000	118,000
Siam	134,000	"	134,000	78,000	22,000	100,000
Gibraltar	20,000	89 000	109,000	"	"	"
Hamburgh	60,000	17,000	77,000	85,000	"	85,000
Macao	65,500	"	65,500	78,500	15,500	94,000
Sweden	31,500	"	31,500	23,000	"	23,000
Manilla	30,500	"	30,500	35,500	37,500	73,000
Isle of France	21,500	"	21,500	90,000	64,000	154,000
New Holland	7,500	2,500	10,000	75,000	1,250	76,250
Cochin China	5,000	"	5,000	22,000	"	22,000
Persian Gulf	1,800	"	1,800	115,000	"	115,000
Cape of Good Hope	1,600	"	1,600	2,000	"	2,000
Mocha	"	"	"	28,000	"	28,000
Bombay	"	"	"	3,150	"	3,150
Total	15,611,400	2,626,200	18,237,600	16,460,150	1,214,750	17,694,900

In the above statement there appears an extraordinary difference between the imports and exports to Japan, which is not accounted for. If approaching to correctness, the Netherlands' trading company must either have the most enormous profits, or they must have some way of introducing goods or specie to Japan, with which we are unacquainted. The following extracts of a letter from an intelligent commander of a ship trading to the East, and who has been frequently to Batavia, gives some information relative to Japan. The letter is dated Rotterdam, 13th January 1835, and to the owner of his ship, my friend Mr. R. S. Henderson, of Liverpool.

"It appears that the whale fishery from this country has been and still is declining, there being now only two ships engaged in the Northern and one in the Southern fishery; the latter from this port, the two former from Harlingen.

"There is no restriction on foreigners embarking in trade here, nor is the militia duty a restriction in the way you suppose; it is, however, to be borne in mind, that the moment that a foreigner settles in the country he becomes amenable to the conscription, from which there is no other exemption but such as arises from bad health or any physical defect.*

"It is difficult to get much information relative to the trade with Japan, as it is entirely in the hands of the Batavian Trading Company, who do not publish any particulars. The Dutch and Chinese are the only nations admitted to any intercourse with Japan; the former with two ships of seven hundred tons (which are seldom more

* This is not quite correct—a Foreigner may pay or compound for a substitute.

than four hundred or five hundred) the latter with ten junks, to which number they are restricted, and which perform only two voyages in each year from the port of Hing-po in China. They carry raw sugar, hides, silks, chiefly satins and damasks, sandal wood, sapan wood, lead, tin, and fine teas, and take in return camphor, sabre blades, pearls, porcelain, japan ware, and copper, of which latter article they are restricted to nine hundred tons annually, worth at Canton about 300,000 Spanish dollars.

"The Dutch part of the trade is carried on by the Dutch factory at Batavia, the principal article of export is sugar, but they also take spices, tin, sandal wood, sapan wood, hides, and elephants' teeth; they also take a few European goods, such as hardware, broad cloths, camblets, (made in this country, called camels' hair, and very expensive) glass ware, and cotton goods, (chiefly what are called Bengal piece goods, and are I believe principally manufactured in England.)

"To Batavia they bring camphor, silks, cotton cloth, crape, drugs, and japanned ware; but the principal article of import is copper, of which they import about six hundred tons annually; it is considered the finest in the world. There are many trifling articles besides, which I do not recollect, but camphor and copper are the principal; the latter is worth about seventy-five to eighty florins per picul in Batavia. The cargoes are always discharged there and sold by public auction. In 1828 the quantity imported was 11,631 piculs—sold for 988,600 florins, and I fancy has not undergone much alteration.

"The Dutch have no colony at Japan, but merely a resident agent with a few clerks, who are restricted to

remain in a small island, or rock, which communicates with the town of Nagasaki by a drawbridge, and subjected to rigorous surveillance. When a ship arrives, the rudder is unshipped, guns dismounted, arms and ammunition sent on shore, and a military guard put on board. The cargoes are landed and kept by officers of the Japanese government—and they have no access to, or control over, the goods except by solicitation. What prices they sell for it is not possible to ascertain."

The above account corresponds with the works lately written relative to Japan, by Messrs. Fischer and Meijlan, the last Dutchmen who have visited Jeddo, the capital of Japan. But those gentlemen give us very little information relative to the commerce of the country.

British and Irish produce and Manufactures Imported into Holland from the United Kingdom, in the year 1833.

ARTICLES.	Weights Number, or Advalorem	Quantity.	Declared Value.
			£
Apparel Slops, and Haberdashery..	value	—	10,541
Arms and Ammunition	do.	—	287
Bacon and Hams	cwts.	2	8
Beef and Pork	barrels	14	63
Beer and Ale	tuns	25	519
Books, printed	cwts.	299	6,065
Brass and Copper, Manufactures ..	do.	3,305	14,614
Butter and Cheese	do.	93	249
Coals, Culm, and Cinders	tons	114,238	39,745
Cordage	cwts.	3	5
Cotton Manufactures. { Entered by the yard / Hosiery, Lace, and small Wares. }	yards / value	20,610,649 / —	78 / 46,770
Cotton Twist and Yarn	lbs.	11,242,705	971,719
Earthenware of all sorts	pieces	2,242,600	20,067
Fish, Herrings	*barrels*	*508*	*529*
Glass. { Entered by weight .... / —— at —— value..... }	cwts. / value	750 / —	4,732 / 220
Hardwares and Cutlery	cwts.	5,759	32,674
Hats, Beaver and Felt.....	dozens	80	507
Iron and Steel, wrought and unwrought	tons	9,585	75,708
Lead and Shot	do.	287	3,698
Leather, wrought and unwrought ..	lbs.	73,622	8,034
Saddlery and Harness.....	value	—	826
Linen Manufactures. { Entered by the yard.... / Thread, Tapes, and small Wares ..... }	yards / value	70,494 / —	2,452 / 397
Linen, Yarn	lbs	266	20
Machinery and Mill Work	value	—	7,718
Painters' colours	do.	—	3,830
Plate, Plated Ware, Jewellery and Watches	do.	—	1,846
Salt	bushels	751,760	7,093
Silk Manufactures.....	value	—	7,367
Soap and Candles.....	lbs.	75,008	1,874
Stationery of all sorts	value	—	1,806
Sugar, refined	cwts.	812	1,267
Tin, unwrought.....	do.	688	2,384
Tin and Pewter Wares and Tin plates	value	—	15,099
Wool, Sheep's *and Lamb's*	*lbs.*	*173,172*	9,663
Woolen and Worsted Yarn.....	do.	490,458	53,964
Woollen Manufactures. { Entered by the piece .. / —— Yard .... / Hosiery and small Wares }	pieces / yards / value	105,445 / 619,677 / —	230,366 / 39,471 / 12,286
All other articles	do.	—	53,632
Total Declared Value of British and Irish produce and Manufactures Imported into Holland			£2,181,893

Foreign and British Colonial Merchandize imported into Holland from the United Kingdom, in the Year 1833.

Ashes, Pearl and Pot	cwts.	1,599
Cassia Liguea	lbs.	103,373
Cinnamon	do.	7,466
Cochineal	do.	2,127
Cocoa	do.	517,343
Coffee	do.	1,441,906
Copper, unwrought	cwts.	39
Corn — Wheat	qrs.	5,187
Corn — Oats	do.	157
Corn — Rye	do.	856
Cortex Peruvianus, or Jesuit's Bark	lbs	63,981
Cotton Piece Goods of India	pieces	16,631
Dyewood, viz.: Logwood	tons	689
Furs — Bear	No	99
Furs — Musquash	do.	10,000
Ginger	cwts.	3
Gum — Laedye	lbs.	1,957
Gum — Shellac	do.	24,820
Indigo	do.	401,496
Lead, Pig	tons	70
Linens, viz.: Plain Linens and Diaper	value	£33
Nutmegs	lbs.	727
Opium	do.	7,188
Pepper	do.	190,913
Pimento	do.	352,731
Quicksilver	do.	3,749
Rhubarb	do	11,022
Rice	cwts.	27,002
Saltpetre and Cubic Nitre unrefined	do.	2,531
Silk — Raw and Waste	lbs.	6,913
Silk — Manufactures of Europe entered by weight	do.	218
Silk Manufactures of India. — Bandannoes, Romals, and handkerchiefs	pieces	2,598
Silk Manufactures of India. — Crape in pieces	do.	6
Silk Manufactures of India. — Crapes, shawls, scarfs, and handkerchiefs	No.	6
Silk Manufactures of India. — Taffetas, Damasks, and other silk pieces	pieces	14
Skins — Deer	No.	20,118
Skins — Goat	No.	150
Spirits — Rum	Proof. gls.	100,591
Spirits — Brandy	do.	4,571
Sugar, unrefined	cwts.	64,483
Tea	lbs.	549
Tin	cwts.	4,286
Tobacco — Unmanufactured	lbs.	753,927
Tobacco — Foreign manufactured and Snuff	do.	4,762
Wine — Cape	gallons	525
Wine — French	do.	1,017
Wine — Portugal	do.	3,753
Wine — Spanish	do.	1,413
Wine — Madeira	do.	22,063
Wine — Canary	do.	7,951
Wine — Rhenish	do.	1,982
Wine — Other Sorts	do.	389
Wine of all sorts	do.	39,093
Wool — Cotton	lbs.	4,253,765
Wool — Sheep's	do.	66,897

Foreign and Colonial Merchandize exported from Holland into the United Kingdom in the year 1833.

Bark for tanning or dying	cwts. qrs lbs.	162,699-1-26
Bristles	lbs.	2,868
Butter	cwts. qrs. lbs.	102,473-3-22
Cheese	do.	131,355.2-11
Cloves	lbs.	163,100
Coffee	do.	284
Copper, unwrought	cwt. qrs. lbs.	9 3-15
Corn, Meal, and Flour. — Wheat	qrs. bsh.	49,421-0
Corn, Meal, and Flour. — Barley	do.	4,219 3
Corn, Meal, and Flour. — Oats	do.	174-4
Corn, Meal, and Flour. — Peas and Beans	do.	5,104-7
Corn, Meal, and Flour. — Wheatmeal and Flour	cwts. qrs. lbs.	181-0-23
Cotton Manufactures entered at value	value	£4,061-0 10
Elephants teeth	cwts qrs. lbs.	0-0-27
Flax and Tow, or Codilla of Hemp and Flax	do.	45,728-3-3
Furs — Fitch	number	13,228
Furs — Marten	do.	895
Gum, Shellac	lbs.	2,822
Hides, untanned	cwts. qrs. lbs.	6,381-2-10
Indigo	lbs.	335
Iron in bars	tons. cts. qrs. lbs.	4-4-1-25
Lead, Pig	do.	0-1-0-2
Leather Gloves	pairs	124
Linens — Cambrics and bordered handkerchiefs	pieces	14
Linens — Plain Linens and Diaper by the sq. yard	sq. yard	3,790
Linens — Plain Linens and Diaper at value	value	£285-6-10
Liquorice Juice	cwts. qrs. lbs.	1-0-12
Mace	lbs.	8,935
Madder	cwts. qrs. lbs.	20,876-3-23
Madder Root	do.	1,882-0-6
Molasses	do.	0-3-10
Nutmegs	lbs.	78,186
Oil, Olive	gallons	4,001
Opium	lbs.	2,380
Pepper	do.	1
Rhubarb	do.	4
Sago	cwts. qrs- lbs.	0-0-3
Seeds — Clover Seed	do.	7,130-2-22
Seeds — Flaxseed and Linseed	bushels	43,279
Seeds — Rape Seed	do.	1,875
Silk — Raw and Waste	lbs.	221,92.
Silk — Thrown	lbs. oz.	10,848 6
Silk Manufactures — Of Europe, entered by weight	do.	5,504-0
Skins — Calf and Kip, untanned	cwts. qrs. lbs.	4,090-0 0
Skins — Goat, undressed	number	9,378
Skins — Kid, do.	do.	24
Smalts	lbs.	10,264
Spirits — Brandy	proof gls.	2,877
Spirits — Geneva	do.	306,542
Sugar, unrefined	cwts. qrs. lbs.	0-1-15
Timber — Deals and Deal Ends	gt. hds. qrs. ne.	6-1 0
Timber — Staves	do.	52-2 20
Timber — Timber, Fir, Oak, and unenumerated 8 inches square or upwards	loads. ft.	48-20
Tin	cwts. qrs. lbs.	2,015-1-25
Tobacco — Unmanufactured	lbs.	151,150
Tobacco — Manufactured and Snuff	lbs. oz.	4,516-13
Wax, Bees	cwts. qrs. lbs.	4-1-12
Wool, Sheep's	lbs.	343,936
Wine — French	gallons	464
Wine — Spanish	do.	41
Wine — Rhenish	do.	39,111
Wine — Other sorts	do.	308
Wine of all sorts	do.	39,924

Commerce between Holland and the United States.

KINGDOM AND COLONIES. (Years ending 30th September.)		IMPORTS INTO HOLLAND, &c. from the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.			Exports from Holland &c. to the United States.
		Domestic Produce.	Foreign Produce.	Total.	
		dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
NETHERLANDS ..	1821	1,954,513	1,739,692	3,694,205	1,038,953
	1825	2,486,468	1,306,839	3,793,307	1,253,369
	1830	3,354,551	675,527	4,030,078	888,408
	1831	1,707,292	212,860	1,920,152	989,837
	1832	2,232,792	2,870,490	5,103,282	1,330 668
	1833	1,634,353	722,409	2,356,762	1,166,856
DUTCH WEST INDIES AND AMERICAN COLONIES.	1821	533,259	149,784	683,043	860,950
	1825	497,194	77,092	574,286	823,607
	1830	319,495	42,298	361,793	286 509
	1831	370,857	45,274	416,131	343,799
	1832	357,520	46,644	404,164	328 332
	1833	380,720	54,038	434,758	440,197
DUTCH EAST INDIES	1821	133,010	1,581,803	1,714,813	134,369
	1825	163,022	1,364,884	1,527,906	188,402
	1830	63,273	107,293	170,566	181,848
	1831	128,684	631,442	760,326	319,395
	1832	24,516	503,504	528,020	668,974
	1833	93,852	680,989	774,841	750,290
BELGIUM.....	1833	644,112	361,499	1,005,611	139,628

Navigation between Holland and the United States.

KINGDOM AND COLONIES. (Years ending 30th September.)		AMERICAN TONNAGE. Entered the Netherlands, &c.	AMERICAN TONNAGE. Departed from the Netherlands, &c.	FOREIGN TONNAGE. Entered the Netherlands, &c.	FOREIGN TONNAGE. Departed from the Netherlands, &c.
		tons.	tons.	tons.	tons.
NETHERLANDS.....	1824	26,048	25,851	1,063	1,403
	1825	26,946	20,921	678	800
	1830	35,220	42,998	4,515	793
	1831	25,168	24,076	1,994	349
	1832	38,770	29,912	8,372	5,630
	1833	22,483	18,596	6,938	4,864
DUTCH WEST INDIES AND AMERICAN COLONIES.	1824	18,224	16,168	823	422
	1825	11,809	17,296	—	1,684
	1830	11,013	12,047	194	248
	1831	11,130	11 296	194	312
	1832	9,511	10,176	60	—
	1833	11,478	15,939	80	290
DUTCH EAST INDIES...	1824	5,610	1,597	—	—
	1825	7,556	1,485	1,234	—
	1830	1,501	662	220	—
	1831	6,498	2,533	—	—
	1832	7,456	5,084	680	—
	1133	7,497	3,934	1,488	1,740
BELGIUM		4,463	5,815	4,993	311

Navigation between Holland and France.—1831.

FLAGS.	ENTERED INWARDS. Ships	Tons.	Men.	CLEARED OUTWARDS. Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Dutch	90	9,792	786	97	8,578	782
French	35	2,259	197	37	2,578	233
Others.....	33	4,168	238	13	1,551	89
Total.....	158	16.199	1,221	137	12 967	1,104

VI. BELGIUM.—*Pages* 302, and 316.

THE Financial Administration, and the management of the public debt of Holland and Belgium, are too lengthy in detail, although curious and interesting, to introduce in this volume. For these statements in full, and also of the trade and occupations of the people of those separate States, I must refer those who feel an interest in such matters to the second volume of my work on the Resources and Statistics of Nations. The following view of the number of ships that entered Antwerp during the six years, ending with 1834, from the last Budgets, may, however, be necessary in this work merely to illustrate what is stated in the text.

COUNTRIES.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.
America	115	83	20	70	62	84
England	216	147	169	198	106	169
Austria	1	1	—	3	6	7
Bremen	1	—	1	5	9	6
Sicily	—	—	—	—	2	1
Buenos Ayres	—	2	1	1	1	1
Denmark	23	15	14	200	218	77
Spain	1	—	—	—	3	2
France	21	7	21	37	13	20
Hayti	—	—	—	1	—	—
Hamburgh	8	5	5	28	14	12
Hanover	53	35	36	289	272	247
Lubeck	3	2	1	2	5	1
Mecklenbourg	6	15	4	32	20	42
Neapolitan	7	15	1	4	4	2
National	451	313	85	151	120	228
Norway	39	21	24	73	45	39
Oldenbourg	12	3	—	35	31	25
Papal States	—	—	—	1	—	—
Prussia	44	26	3	64	68	48
Rostock	2	—	1	12	6	6
Russia	6	6	—	9	10	5
Sardinia	1	—	1	1	—	8
Sweden	21	33	11	43	55	39
Total Ships	1,031	729	398	1,260	1,070	1,069
Tonnage	160,658	120 333	53,303	150,294	129,600	138,206

Abstract of the Budgets for 1835 and 1836, presented by the Belgian Minister of Finance to the Chambers.

	1835.	1836.
War department ..	.. 41,428,000	38,100,000
Foreign affairs and Marine	.. 1,334,878	1,304,848
Justice	... 5,373,727	4,549,627
Interior	.. 11,088,114	10,804,649
Finance	.. 12,599,803	11,972,009
Civil list and Dotations	.. 3,305,687	3,305,687
Public debt and Pensions	.. 11,640,883	11,840,833
Reimbursements, &c.	.. 1,258,500	1,258,546
	frs. 88,029,592	frs. 83,136,199

See also statement relative to the finance of Holland, Vol. i. page 260.

VOLUME II.

VII.—EDUCATION IN PRUSSIA.—*Page.* 20.

I HAVE in the text disagreed, positively, with the admirers of the Prussian system of education. Were that system as liberal as it is extensively disseminated it would justly be the admiration of the whole world.—In Austria and all the Confederated States the diffusion of instruction in reading and writing and simple arithmetic, as well as in the useful sciences, is generally established, but strictly limited in its nature to the standard presented by Government. The late resolutions of the Germanic Diet on this subject are sufficiently explicit.

The following tables are extracts from the German Journal, entitled "The Annals of Scientific Criticism," edited principally by the most distinguished literary and scientific men of Berlin.

I. Table exhibiting the number of Professors and Students in the different Universities of the Prussian Monarchy at the end of the year 1832.

UNIVERSITIES.	NUMBER of ORDINARY PROFESSORS. belonging to the DIFFERENT FACULTIES.					NUMBER of EXTRAORDINARY PROFESSORS belonging to the DIFFERENT FACULTIES.					NUMBER of PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS belonging to the FACULTIES.					Languages and other Exercises.
	of Theology of the Confession.					Theology.					Theology.					
	Protestant.	Catholic.	Law.	Medicine.	Philosophy.	Protestant.	Catholic.	Law.	Medicine.	Philosophy.	Protestant.	Catholic.	Law.	Medicine.	Philosophy.	
Berlin	5	—	8	11	22	2	—	3	13	24	5	—	1	14	14	6
Bonne	4	3	4	12	21	1	2	3	1	6	3	—	2	1	6	7
Breslaw	4	3	6	8	14	—	1	—	3	8	3	—	1	5	6	10
Greifswald	4	—	4	4	9	2	—	3	1	5	—	—	—	2	2	4
Halle	8	—	6	7	16	3	—	2	3	10	2	—	2	—	8	9
Koningsberg	4	—	3	5	13	3	—	4	2	4	—	—	3	3	9	5
Munster	—	6	—	—	4	—	1	—	—	3	—	1	—	—	3	—
Total	29	12	31	47	99	11	4	15	23	60	13	1	9	25	48	41
Grand Total	331										137					

II. The Number of Students at the different faculties in 1832.

UNIVERSITIES.	THEOLOGY.		Law.	Medicine.	Philosophy.	Total.	Natives.	Foreigners.
	Protestant.	Catholic.						
Berlin.....	569	—	585	320	238	1,732	1,279	453
Bonne.....	107	224	231	129	106	797	716	81
Breslaw	232	250	246	127	191	1,046	1,029	17
Griefswald.....	140		45	52	19	236	221	15
Halle	530	—	168	89	81	868	717	151
Koningsberg	184		108	58	102	452	431	21
Munster	—	213	—	—	79	292	238	54
Total.....	1,742	687	1,383	775	836	5,423	4,631	792

Besides the 1,732 students enregistered at the University of Berlin, four hundred and thirteen individuals are entitled to join the different courses; and at the University of Breslaw, besides one thousand and forty-six students registered, ninety-three individuals have fixed days of attendance by virtue of authorisation.

III. Gymnastic Colleges of the Prussian Monarchy, in 1832-33.

GYMNASTIC COLLEGES.	Population including Soldiers.	NUMBER OF		Number of Students which attended the Colleges in 1832.	NUMBER OF STUDENTS which left the Colleges in the Summer of 1832.		Number of Students which entered the Colleges in the six Months 1832-33.	Number of Students which frequented the Colleges in the six Months. 1832-33
		Colleges.	Professors.		Taken Degrees.	not Taken.		
Prussia	2,025,927	15	160	3,712	71	311	408	3,730
Grand Duchy of Posen	1,056,278	3	42	928	12	107	144	953
Silesia	2,464,414	21	197	5,086	167	573	877	5,223
Pomerania	912,223	6	69	1,518	52	130	194	1,530
Brandenburg	1,579,939	18	271	4,398	61	362	456	4,431
Duchy of Saxe	1,449,587	23	228	3,811	91	306	308	3,722
Westphalia	1,261,996	20	159	2,094	123	264	403	2,112
Rhenish Provinces	2,288,596	18	208	2,914	152	273	649	3,137
Total	13,038,960	124	1,334	24,461	729	2,326	3,439	24,838

IV. Table stating the number and condition of the Normal Schools, or Seminaries for instructing masters to conduct the Primary Schools, established in the Prussian monarchy in 1832-3.

SEMINARIES.	Number of Seminaries.	REVENUE of the Seminaries arising from the FUNDS.		Number of Professors Directors &c.	Number of Students	Amount of Succours accorded to the Students.	PURSES.	
		Public.	Divers.				Whole.	Half.
		thalers.	thalers.			thalers.		
Prussia	10	21,803	8,902	39	454	7,785	61	—
Grand Duchy of Posen	5	8,425	70	21	139	2,420	—	—
Silesia	5	7,961	7,759	29	324	1,240	184	87
Pomerania	4	7,143	1,455	16	114	1,376	40	—
Brandenburg	4	13,139	3,858	26	256	500	34	32
Duchy of Saxe	6	4,033	12,122	56	278	2,032	—	30
Westphalia	4	3,452	8,615	17	214	2,845	—	—
Rhenish Provinces	4	13,334	200	15	213	3,600	—	—
Total	45	79,490	42,961	219	1,992	23,798	319	149

Of the above Seminaries twenty-six have been organized in the 19th century. The other establishments date from the 18th century; and the oldest was instituted at Koenigsberg in 1701.

V. State of the Primary Schools in the Prussian Monarchy in 1832-3.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS.	Number of Primary Schools	NUMBER of STUDENTS.		Total.	Population.	Inhabitants per square mile.
		Boys.	Girls.			
Prussia	3,962	158,803	163,837	322,640	2,025,927	1,719
Grand Duchy of Posen	1,384	50,077	43,395	93,472	1,056,278	1,968
Silesia	3,897	118,544	112,974	231,518	1,579,939	2,161
Pomerania	2,388	65,313	59,826	125,139	912,223	1,608
Brandenburg	3,540	194,173	190,576	384,749	2,464,414	3,322
Duchy of Saxe	2,710	124,825	122,916	247,741	1,449,587	3,176
Westphalia	1,806	106,150	102,125	208,275	1,261,996	3,443
Rhenish Provinces	3,202	169,590	154,810	324,400	2,288,596	4,767
Total	21,889	987,475	950,459	1,937.934	13,038,960	2,706

The whole of the Primary Schools in 1832, were directed by 22,211 Schoolmasters, 2,014 Ushers, and 604 Schoolmistresses.

From the most recent Statistical Tables, there is to every 1,000 inhabitants in Europe, 135 children, from the age of 6 to 14 years. In France, according to Mr. Charles Dupin, 1,000 inhabitants sent in 1820, to the Primary Schools, only 36 pupils; and, in 1829, 43 children frequented the Primary Schools during the winter months, and only 21 during the summer months.

Prussia possessed at this epoch, besides the 140 colleges, or gymnasia, included in the foregoing table, 481 small schools (*Mittelschulen)* for boys and 372 for girls. The number of professors employed for the instruction of boys, amounted to 1,172 and 360 assistants. The number in the girls schools, amounted to 535 masters, 289 mistresses, and 451 assistants.—56,879 male, and 46,598 female scholars have frequented the small schools; the total number of students who frequented the colleges *(Gymnasien und hoheren Bürger Schulen)* and the small schools was 129,528.* The students of this division seldom exceed the age of 14 years, and it is estimated that the number of children in the Prussian monarchy amounts to 2,000,000, or one in seven of the whole population.

* The school of cadets, established at Berlin, instructs 707 scholars; in Prussia there are numerous institutions for military education. It may be observed that in these statements the number of scholars in the Gymnasia, amount to 26,011 individuals, whereas in Table II, they are set down at 27,461. In one, the military schools are not included, which must account for the difference.

See Resources and Statistics of Nations, vol. ii. section, Moral Statistics.

The Prussian Colleges have undergone several modifications and nearly a complete reorganisation; but they have kept their primitive names—Gymnasia, Pedagogien, Ritter-Academie, Land Schule, Kloster Schule, etc.—The division in seven classes is common to all these colleges, excepting seven gymnasia of the Academie, of Gentlemen at Legnitz; and to all the Pragymnasia, of which there is one in Silesia, and nine in the Rhenish provinces, which have not the two superior classes.

The Seminaries for the instruction of Schoolmasters are not organised on the same plan; two of these establishments have three classes, while eighteen have only two. The Institute of Kœningsberg has only one class. The candidates for the direction of the Primary Schools, follow a course of studies which last from one to three years, according to their individual capacities and the plan of study adopted in the different Seminaries of the country.

The grand Duchy of Posen, in which the Polish language is spoken, (and much in want of a high scholastic institution,) is the only Prussian Province which has not an University. The frequent petitions of the people upon this subject although based upon local want, and on the guaranties stipulated by the treaty of Vienna, have not been attended, up to the present time, with any useful result.

VIII. EHRENBREITSTEIN: MILITARY FORCE OF PRUSSIA.—*Page* 33.

Prussia has been actively engaged in reconstructing her dismantled fortresses, and in strengthening those which the French did not demolish. The former, or those termed the new fortresses, are Cologne, Coblentz, with Ehren-

breitstein, Stralsund, Schweidnitz, Thorn, and Minden; the latter, Torgau, Glatz, Erfurt, Juliers, Sarrelouis, Custrin, Wittemberg, Neisse, which have received large repairs, and Dantzic, Graudenz, Stettin, Magdeburg, Glogau, Wesel, Pillau, Spandau, Kolberg, Silberberg, and Rosel, which have always been regularly kept up.

In all the recent fortifications a new system has been introduced, which the French on the part of Montalambert lay claim to, but which the Prussian General of Engineers, Aster, has, however, reduced to a practical plan. Ehrenbreitstein, for example, looks a most formidable fortress defended by heavy artillery mounted on towers and bastions, which merely support the curtain or what is no more than a screen to the actual fortress, which within mounts several hundred pieces of heavy artillery. These screen-towers, or outworks, which rise before Ehrenbreitstein and Fort Alexander, are of solid masonwork and sufficient for protection against the most formidable *coup-de-main*. The stupendous towers with usually three tiers of artillery; the bomb proof and casemated batteries; the sloping ditches from the top of the glacis downwards, the covert way from the outworks to the bastions of the citadel, exhibit proofs that the Prussian Engineers place their whole dependence upon, and their only fear of attack from, the effect of artillery: the walls of all the works are, however, enfiladed by the fire from the flanks of the bastions and by that of the casemated batteries.

As to the military force of Prussia there is in every statement a difference as to number. The furloughs, the contingents of the Landwehr, thin and fill up the ranks at various seasons. The following statement drawn up for the

Journal des Sciences Militaires, of February, 1834, agrees most with the best authenticated statements of the force which Prussia with her population of now (1835) nearly fourteen millions can bring into the field—

PRUSSIAN ARMY.

INFANTRY GUARD.

4 regiments, including 2 of Grenadiers at 3 battalions each	8,000
1 regiment of reserve of two battalions	1,350
1 battalion of chasseurs	850
Total of the Infantry Guard ..	10,200

INFANTRY OF THE LINE.

32 regiments of the line, at 3 battalions each	58,880
8 regiments of reserve, at 2 ditto	6,776
1 battalion of chasseurs and 1 of sharpshooters	1,600
54 companies of garrisons	5,000
24 companies of invalids	3,000
Total Infantry of the Line ..	75,256
Contingent of the regiments of Landwehr	1,800
	87,256

CAVALRY.

CAVALRY GUARD.

1 regiment of the gardes-du-corps 1 regiment of cuirassiers 1 regiment of dragoons 1 regiment of hussards 2 regiments of Landwehr of Hulans	3,480

CAVALRY OF THE LINE.

8 regiments of cuirassiers 4 regiments of dragoons 12 regiments of hussards 8 regiments of Landwehr of Hulans	16,480
	19,960

ARTILLERY.

9 Brigades, including one of the Guard 12,900
Each Brigade is composed of 3 divisions, or battalions, and each division of 4 companies of foot artillery, 1 company of horse, and 1 company of workmen. (Each company contains a battery of 8 pieces.)

ENGINEERS.

(Not including the officers of the staff.)

9 divisions of Pioneers of 2 companies each..... 1,800

Total of Prussian Army in time of Peace.. 121,916

AUGMENTATION IN TIME OF WAR.

First Band of the Landwehr.

40 regiments of Infantry—viz., 4 regiments of the Guard of three battalions, 32 of the provincial Landwehr, of three battalions, and 4 regiments of reserve of two battalions.

104 squadron of Cavalry

The Effective of the first Ban of the Landwehr, which does the first active service of the army, including the completion of the Reserve, amount to 228,000

Second Band of the Landwehr or Landsturm.

104 battalions 180,000

Total Prussian Army in time of War.. 529,916

General Caraman constitutes the total combatants at:—

INFANTRY.

248 battalions of 1,000 men each, including the Landwehr, 104 battalions..... 248,000

CAVALRY.

152 squadrons of the line Cavalry, including guards— 175 horses, each ..... 104 squadrons of Landwehr	43,448

ARTILLERY.

135 companies at 250 men each	27,000
27 ditto of Sappers.....	6,750
54 garrison division companies	5,400
Total.....	330,559

To the above may be added the Landwehr of the second Ban stated at least equal to 200,000 able bodied men. Of the army less than half receives pay; two thirds of it are only called out during the year; but at the same time it must be considered, that although the skeleton of the Prussian army scarcely exceeds 100,000 men, yet that the rotation of severe drills brings almost every able-bodied man into complete military discipline.

The Marquis de Chambray, to whom every thing that Prussia does appears liberal and proper, in his pamphlet on that country, in which he has long resided, states the forces in round numbers as follows :—

Regular army.....	100,000 men
Kriegsreserve (war).....	50,000
Landwehr (first ban).....	150,000
Total....	300,000

The second Ban of the Landwehr or Landsturm, must be considered as a *levée en masse*. That Prussia can raise and equip half a million of troops there can be no question of doubt; but that which involves the primary considera-

tion in modern warfare, arises from the financial resources of a country.

VIII. B. WELLS. *see page.* 312

IX. GOVERNMENT OF THE GERMAN CONFEDERATION.—*Page* 100.

THE Empire of Charlemagne dissolved itself into feudal governments, which becoming independent within themselves of the supreme authority, as the central control became enfeebled, finally limited the Imperial succession to election. The sudden and powerful rise of the House of Austria, in the 13th century; the Reformation, in the 15th, the power and regal position attained by Prussia, in the 18th, and the wars of Napoleon, all effected remarkable and great changes in the Germanic policy; the system of which is at present extremely complicated.

Including Austria, Prussia, and the Province of Luxembourg, and excluding Lichtenstein, lately purchased by Prussia, the Confederation, agreeably to the Pact of 1815, consists politically, of thirty-nine states; or forty, if Lichtenstein and Luxembourg shall continue to have votes at the Diet.

Baron Malchus arranges the German States nearly as follows:—

1. Limited Monarchies with a free Representative Constitution—as Bavaria, Wurtemberg, the Grand Duchies of Baden, Nassau, and Hesse; and the Province of Luxembourg, dependent on the sovereignty of Belgium or of the Netherlands.

2. Monarchies limited by a partial representation; that is, having Provincial or National States—as the Empire of Austria, Prussia, Hanover, Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Cobourg Gotha, Saxe-Meiningen-Hildbourghausen, Brunswick, the Principalities of Waldeck, Lippe-Detmold, Lippe-Schaumbourg, Schwarzbourg-Rudölstadt, and Lichtenstein (the last ten have modified representations, in which the people are generally more or less represented), the Grand Duchies of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernburg, Anhalt-Coethen, Reuss-Schleiz, Reuss-Greiz, and Reuss Lobenstein-Eberstoff, which latter eight have State Assemblies

3. Autocracies. — Oldenburg, Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, Hesse-Electoral, Holstein, Hesse-Homberg, and Kniphausen.

4. Republics. — Frankfort-on-the-Maine, Hamburgh, Bremen and Lubec.

Of the famed Imperial Hanse Towns long reduced to these four, Frankfort on the Maine (*Main*) now maintains the political supremacy, from being not only the seat of the German Diet, but from its admirable position as an *entrepôt* receiving and vending the productions of all countries, for supplying the demand of central Europe.

The Government of Frankfort, by the Grand Council, or Senate, is composed of the first and second Burgomasters and three Syndics, assisted by subordinate municipal authorities. A commission of two senators manage the relations of the Republic with the German Diet.

The city of Hamburgh ranks first among the free towns in commercial importance, especially as regards the intercourse with foreign and distant countries.

The Government is administered by four Burgomasters,

elected for life; and four Syndics, with the self-elected Senate of 28 members, and inferior municipal authorities, or councils.

The Government of Bremen is more democratic than the other free towns. The four Burgomasters are, however, elected for life.

The city of Lubeck is declining in its commercial importance. A Senate, four Burgomasters, elected for life, and two Syndics, administer the Government.

THE GERMAN DIET.

The meetings of the Diet have two characters:—The one, Federal *(consilium restrictum)* the other General *(consilium plenum)*.

In the Federal meeting, the votes of the members are reduced to 17, distributed and taking rank in the following order:—1. Austria; 2. Prussia; 3. Bavaria; 4. Saxony; 5. Hanover; 6. Wurtemberg; 7. Grand Duchy of Hesse Darmstadt; 8. Hesse-Electoral; 9. Baden; 10. Duchy of Holstein (Denmark); 11. Grand Duchy of Luxembourg; 12. Grand Duchy of Saxe-Weimar, and the three Saxon Duchies of Cobourg, Meiningen, and Altenbourg; 13. Duchies of Brunswick and Nassau (Biberich); 14. Grand Duchies of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Strelitz; 15. Grand Duchy of Oldenburg, Duchies of Anhalt Dessau, Bernburgh, and Coethen, and the Principalities of Schwarzburg, Sondershausen, and Rudölstadt; 16. The Principalities of Hohenzollern-Hechingen, and Sigmaringen, Lichtenstein, Reuss, (the elder and younger branch), Lippe-Detmold and Schaumburg, Waldeck, and the Landgrave of Hesse-Homberg; 17.

The free towns of Frankfort, Hamburgh, Lubeck, and Bremen.

In the General Council, the number of votes attributed to each of the foregoing sections are thus distributed:—Nos. 1. 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, each four votes; Nos. 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11, each three votes; Nos. 12 and 13, each four votes; No. 14, three votes; No. 15, six; No. 16, nine; and No. 17, four votes—making altogether 69 votes. Each of these sections is represented by an Ambassador: the whole are under the presidency of Austria, and the vice-presidency of Prussia.

In the *consilium restrictum*, all matters are discussed and pre-determined. In the *consilium plenum*, the representatives merely vote by yea and no. Thus the great States, which monopolise eleven out of seventeen voices, insure themselves a preliminary majority, and render illusory the votes of the petty States, in the *consilium plenum*, which may be regarded as a mere official ceremony. "I leave to the consideration of every man of sense (observes Dr. Friedlænder) to judge of the ridiculous situation of these small States, who are thus the mere executive tools *(exécuteurs des hautes œuvres)* of Austria and Prussia.

"In the full council, a majority of two-thirds is necessary; in the federal meeting, a simple majority suffices. The presence of at least nine members is urgent. Austria has the casting vote in the event of equality.

"The Confederation (it is supposed) never interferes in the affairs of the different States but in the event of the abuse of power, or to guarantee the respective institutions, or when public tranquillity is menaced. Then, and on the demand of any given ruling power, it interferes to re-establish its sovereign rights. The Confederate States

have come to an understanding as to the means necessary to be employed to remove any difficulties that may arise amongst them, without having recourse to armed force, These forces consist of a total of 301,637 men, divided into ten army corps, giving an effective of 222,119 infantry, 11,694 light troops, 43,900 cavalry, 21,717 artillery and train, 3,017 engineers and pontoon-men, with 612 field pieces. The fortresses of the Confederation are Mayence, Luxembourg, and Landau" The Diet sits at Frankfort-on-the-Maine.

Besides the 17 Envoys, the first has a Counsellor of Legation, Secretary and Attaché: and most of the other Counsellors and Secretaries. There is also a Director of the Chancery; a Military Commission of three members; three Commandants of the Army; and Governors of the fortresses of Mayence, Luxembourg, and Landau. France, Great Britain, and Russia, have representative Ministers at Frankfort.

The population of each State, as electoral, and confederated, and as supplying contingent forces for the general defence, are as follows, according to the latest statements published at Frankfort.

Neither the whole population, territory, nor the whole forces of Austria and Prussia are included; but merely what is within the limits of the German Confederacy,

The number of mediatized Princes, or those who have no electoral voice, amount to no less than eighty-four, possessing in all territories equal to an extent of 7,774 German square miles, with a population of 1,187,489, and a revenue of 12,184,000 florins (about 2,200,000*l.* sterling) divided among them.

POPULATION AND CONTINGENT FORCES OF THE CONFEDERATION.

	Population.	Troops.
Austria	10,820,000	94,822
Prussia	9,665,000	79,234
Bavaria	4,030,000	35,600
Saxony	1,435,000	12,000
Hanover	1,546,000	13,054
Wurtemberg	1,585,000	13,955
Baden	1,157,000	10,979
Hesse Cassel	613,000	5,679
— Darmstadt	720,000	8,421
Holstein	454,000	3,600
Luxembourg	290,000	2,380
Saxe Weimar	230,000	2,010
— Coburg	156,000	1,366
— Altenburg	109,000	982
— Meiningen	136,000	1,150
Brunswick	251,000	2,096
Nassau	248,000	3,028
Mecklenburg Schwerin	446,000	3,546
— Strelitz	79,000	718
Oldenburg	254,000	2,178
Anhalt Dessau	58,000	529
— Bernburg	40,000	370
— Coethen	35,000	325
Schwartzburg, Sondershausen	50,000	457
— Rudölstadt	58,000	539
Hohenzollern Hechingen	15,000	145
— Sigmaringen	41,000	356
— Lichtenstein	5,850	55
Elder Reuss	24,300	223
Younger Reuss	58,000	522
Lippe Detmold	67,730	691
— Schaumbourg	26,000	240
— Waldeck	56,000	519
Hesse Homburg	22,000	200
Frankfort	60 000	600
Hamburgh	140,000	1,298
Lubeck	47,000	407
Bremen	59,000	485

The Superficies of the above States, that is, without including only the electoral dominions of Austria and Prussia, are computed by the German geographers at 46,465 geographical German square miles, (15 of which in length to a degree.) The revenue is not strictly certain, from the circumstance of the budgets being frequently for three or five years. Balbi, who has collected all the printed authorities, exhibits, in comparing them, the most contradictory statements.

The whole revenue of the Confederation may be computed at about 33,000,000*l.* sterling — the debt at 115,000,000*l.* In the small States the taxation is high; in Austria, and some of the larger States, low, in proportion to the population. Excepting in matters of finance and expenditure, whatever relates to statistical arrangement is clearly exhibited in the published documents of each state. The *Journal des Sciences Militaires* states the total contingent forces of the Confederation, in 1834, at 362,815 men.

The war strength of Austria at..... ...	527,224
Prussia exclusive of 2nd Ban..	349,916
Remaining German States.. ...	152,358
Total German Confederation, exclusive of *levée en masse*	1,029,598

X. PRUSSIAN GOVERNMENT.—*Page* 125.

THE KING.

The King of Prussia has two Cabinet Secretaries; that is one for the Military and one for the Civil Section of the King's Cabinet.

The first, who is an Aide-de-camp, labours with the Sovereign in all military affairs.

The second, a Counsellor, fulfils similar functions in civil affairs. This Cabinet forms the organ between the Sovereign, and all the functionaries and departments, civil and military, of the kingdom.

The principal officers and departments of State administering public affairs, immediately under the King, are the following :—

THE COUNCIL OF STATE.

(According to the organisation established 20th March, 1817.)

This is the Superior Council of the Monarchy, and consists of the Princes of the Royal Family, after attaining the age of eighteen years; the Ministers of State holding portfolios; the Chief or President of the Supreme Tribunal; the Private or Cabinet Secretary of the King; the Secretary of State; the President of the Bureau of Public Debt; the First President of the Chamber of Accounts; the Postmaster-General; the Eight Military Commandants; and the Eight Supreme Civil Presidents of Provinces when summoned: then, those who have a voice in the Council, by will, or confidence, of the King, usually the Governor-General of New Pomerania; an Archbishop; two Evangelical Bishops; the Captain-General of Mënz; the President of the Tribunal of Cassation in the Rhenish Regency; a Minister of State without a portfolio; an Intendent-General, six or eight Counsellors, or Presidents of Courts; the Auditor-General of Taxes; the Prince Sulkoski of Posen, &c. &c. The Duke Charles of Mecklenburg is President: but the King may also preside.

The Council deliberates on questions submitted to it by the King, to whom only it makes reports on these subjects. The Council has the right of demanding explanations and written statements from the Ministers. The King is said to decide almost invariably in accordance with the advice of the Council of State.

MINISTRY OF STATE.—*(Staats-Ministerium.)*

THIS superior administrative department of government assembles for deliberating on either general or special matters; particularly for securing unity of action in every attribution of the administrative functions.—*(Die Einheit der Verwaltung.)*—It is composed of the Prince Royal; and all the Ministers with portfolios, the President of the Council of State has the privilege, when he pleases, of being present at these conferences or councils.

The examination of the public accounts; the preparation of the general budget; to devise projects of law to be presented to the Council of State; the examination of financial and other document spresented by the respective presidents of provinces; to revise periodical statistical reports; to regulate projects relative to the administration for the succeeding year; to project the budget of provincial revenues; and all matters relative to the superior provincial tribunals, belong to the attributions of the Ministry of State.

PARTICULAR MINISTERS AND DEPARTMENTS.

I. The Minister of the King's household, having a Grand Chamberlain and two Directors.

This Minister is charged with the administration of the

Domains of the Crown *(Fidei Comis Fonds)*, and also to administer all the affairs of the Court; the household charges, titles, distinctions of rank, &c.

II. The Minister of Public Worship and Instruction and Medical Affairs, divided into three directions, viz.:—Religion, Public Instruction, and the Medical Department.

The attributions of this Minister include the direction of the Academy of Sciences at Berlin, consisting of four classes, viz.:—Physical, Mathematical, Philosophical, and Philological Sciences;—the direction of the Academy of Arts at Berlin, which exercises control over all the schools of art and trade;—the Royal Museum at Berlin, with the collections of paintings, and the statues of the Egyptian Museum, and classic monuments; the learned Societies; Scientific Establishments; Universities; Public Schools; and the Committee charged with the examination of Medical Students, who are candidates for graduates, or for obtaining permission to exercise the professions of surgeons or physicians.

III. Minister of the Interior, for Commerce and Manufactures.*

This department of the Ministry consists of three divisions, viz.:—

First.—For affairs of Commerce, Trade, Manufactures and Buildings.

* The superintendance of matters relative to home manufactures has so extremely engaged the attention of the Government, that a public department of the Ministry has been specially adjudged to that special object.

Second.—For affairs relative to the Territorial Banking Institutions.

Third.—The General Administration of Agriculture, Mines, Salt Works, &c. *(Oberberg-Hauptmanschaft.)*

There are also under the direction of this Minister :—

The Statistical Bureau; the Superior Technical Commission for the Affairs of Buildings *(Technische Ober-Bau Deputation)*; the Academy of Architecture *(Bau-Academie)*; the School of Practical Architecture *(Bau Geverk Schule)*; the Practical Committee of Art and Trade *(Technische Gewerbe-Deputation)*; the Technical Institute of Art and Trade *(Technisches Gewerbe-Institut)*; Royal Porcelain Manufactory; the Institution for educating Students for the Working of Mines; all the Territorial Banks *(Landschaftliche Creditvereine)*, established in Brandenburgh, Silesia, Eastern and Western Prussia, Pomerania, and the Grand Duchy of Posen; the General Committee and Colleges of Revision, charged to regulate the relations between the proprietors of seignioral domains on one side, and the peasants on the other; and the General Administration of Funds appertaining to the widows of public functionaries, all belong to the attributions of this Ministry (by the laws of 27th October, 1810, 3rd June, 1814, and 3rd November, 1817.)

IV. Ministry of the Interior, and Police, divided into three divisions, viz. :—

First.—Occupies itself with the General Affairs of the Interior; Military Affairs; Affairs of the Crown *(Hoheits-Sachen)*; of the Feodal Institutions, and other Companies

of Insurance against Fires; the Prisons, the Corporations, the Communes, Pauperism, and the Israelite Population.

Second.—Is charged with the Affairs of the Provincial States.

Third.—Directs the Affairs of the Police.

The following authorities are subordinate to this department of the ministry:—

The Superior Censorship of the Press; the Secularised Chapter of Brandenburg; the Special Insurance Offices against Fires, established in different provinces of the Monarchy; the Magistracy of Berlin; and the Presidency, or College of the Police at Berlin *(Polizei Praesidium.)*

V. Minister of the Treasury and Money Department. *(Staats-Buch-Halterei.)*

This department is under the direction of the Ministers of the Treasury and Finance: but under the special direction of the first of these ministers. The attributions are two, viz.:—

First.—The administration of the Public Treasury and of the Mint; and

Second.—The Grand Institute for Military Orphans at Potsdam.

VI. Ministry of Finance, divided into six general sections, viz.:—

First.—For the General Administration of the Public Revenue.

Second.—Of Taxes.

Third.—Of the recovery of Arrears of the Revenue.

Fourth.—Of State Domains and Forests.

Fifth.—For preparing the Estimates relative to the Budgets *(Etats-Abtheilung)*; and

Sixth.—For affairs relative to the Public Buildings.

Under the direction of the Minister of Finance, are also:—

The Administration of the Lottery; the Dépôt of Stamps *(Haupt-Stempel-Magazin)*; the Office of the Almanack *(Kalender Deputation)*: the Fiscal Stamp Office *(Stempel Fiscalat)*, for the province of Brandenburg; and the Administration of Stamps upon Legacies and Inheritances for *(für)* Berlin; the Bureau of Taxes, collected in the province of Brandenburg, and for realising Exchequer Bills *(Kassen-Anweisungen)*; the Salt Factory *(Salz-Factorei)*, of Berlin; the Office for the General Receipt of Taxes imposed on home *(Inländische)* productions, and on Credits for Sales paid by Bills for which stamp-duty is paid; the Office for the General Receipt of Taxes imposed on foreign *(Ausländische)* articles imported; and all the offices of Tax Receipts, established in the provinces *(Provincial-Steuer-Directionen)*, to which are subordinate, the Excise Administrations *(Haupt-Zoll-Aemter)*, in all the provinces for the Recovery of Arrears and Taxes *(Haupt-Steuer-Aemter)*.

VII. Ministry of Justice, divided into two departments: one for the Supreme Direction of Justice and Revision of Laws for the Rhenish Provinces, in which the *Code Napoléon* is still in force; and the other for the Supreme Administration of Justice in all the other provinces, and matters that relate to *Fiefs*.

The attributions of this Minister include the inspection

of the progress of Judicial Affairs *(Gerichts Pflege)*; Mortgages: the Judiciary Dépôt (for depositing the money of minors, bankrupts, &c.); the Affairs of Minors; decisions in affairs which regard the Royal Household, the control over Decrees *(Gesetz-Angelegenheiten)* pronounced in feudal, and in high criminal processes, chiefly of high political character. This Minister submits decrees in criminal processes for royal confirmation. He proposes for the royal nomination *employés*, to fill the superior offices of the *magistrature*, and others, from the grade of counsellor and chief director of justice, in the principal towns, downwards.

All the Courts of Justice are subordinate to this Minister, and subjected to his orders, in all affairs of Finance and Discipline, viz.:—

The Superior Secret Tribunal *(Geheime-Ober-Tribunal)*; Public Court of Cassation *(Der Rheinische-Revisions-und-Cassations Hoff)*, for the Rhenish Provinces; the Special Committee *(Die-Immediat-Justiz-Examinations-Commission)* for examining those who are to follow the judiciary career, as advocates or counsellors of courts, &c. the Tribunals *(Geheime-Ober-Tribunale)*, which are established for all civil processes which may occur in the Prussian Monarchy, excepting in the Rhenish Provinces, the Grand Duchy of Posen, and New Pomerania; the same tribunal has jurisdiction in processes between the seignioral proprietors *(Guts Besitzer)* and the peasantry *(Bauerstand)*. The Rhenish Court of Cassation is a court of common decision in all processes which regards the Rhenish Provincial inhabitants (situated on the right shore of the Rhine), and as a Court of Cassation, or final trial, in the

processes which regards the inhabitants of all the rest of the Rhenish Provinces.*

VIII. Minister for Foreign Affairs.

This Minister directs all Diplomatic Affairs. The Censorship of Political Writings are also submitted to his direction. He administers the Affairs of Neufchatel, and delivers all Passports, whether for emigration, or for commercial journeys, or voyages, as well as for all other movements.

The communications with the Pope are despatched by this Minister, first consulting with the Minister of Public Worship.

All Diplomatic Agents, including the Consuls; also the Institute of the State Gazette of Berlin *(Staats-Zeitungs-Institut)*, are under the orders and direction of the Minister for Foreign Affairs.

IX. The Ministry of War consists of three divisions, viz:—

First.—General Department of War.

1st. Section.—For all affairs which regards the Army, including the Artillery and Engineer department.

2nd. Section.—For all affairs which regards the Personnel of the Forces; the Private Chancery of War *(Geheime-Krieges-Kanzelley)*, also belongs to this section.

Second.—The department of Military Economy *(Militaire Oeconomie Department)*, composed of sections, for

* Conferatur die Verordnung vom 27 October, 1810, und die Cabinets ordre vom 6 Sept. 1815. Siehe Gezetz Sammlung vom 1815, p. 198.

administering all affairs relative to the Carriage of Military Stores; the Military Estimates and Finances; the Provision and Ordnance Magazines; the means of Transport; and the Indemnification for Expenses on Routes and Marches; the Clothing of Troops; the Equipages of Campaigns, and the Military Train; the Lodging of the Troops; the Military Hospitals, the Invalides, and the Funds of Soldier's Widows.

Third. — The Court of Military Justice (*General Auditoriat.)*

The Attributions and Military Offices under the immediate direction of the Minister of War, are:—

The Board of Inspection, for comptrolling the Cavalry Department *(Remonte-Inspection)*; the Committee for the Examination of Candidates for the several bureaux of Intendency; the General Military Chest; the Institute for the Education of Soldiers' Sons, at Anneburg; the Army Medical Institutions; the Medical Staff of the Army; the Institute Medico-Chirurgical, the Pension, or Institute, for Veteran Medical Officers *(Pension-Aerzte)*; and the Medico-Chirurgical Academy for the service of the Army.

The authorities in continual communication with the Minister, are:—

The Superior Committee for the Examination of Cadets. (*Ober-Militaire-Examinations-Commission)*; the Committee delegated to examine Ensigns *Port d'Epée*, who are organized in each Provincial division, and in correspondence with the General Committee; the Institutions for Military Education (*Das Militaire-Unterrichts, und Erzie-*

hungs — Wesen der Armee), viz: — the Committee of Military Study; the General Military School; the Directors of Divisional Schools; the Common School for the Artillery and Engineers; the Institute (for younger sons), at Berlin, Potsdam, and Culm. The Economical department of the Army directs the Provincial Administrations, named intendencies (*Intendanturen*), one of which is attached to the *Garde du Corps* at Berlin, and eight others to the Corps of the Army, established at Königsberg, Stettin, Berlin, Magdeburg, Posen, Breslaw, Münster, and Coblentz.

The administrations of the Magazines, Garrisons, Hospitals, Waggon and Artillery Train, and the Dépots of Stores and Clothing, are submitted to the Intendants.

There are Five Superior Authorities which are annexed to the Attributions of the Ministers, viz :—

I. The General Direction of the Post-Office, (*General-Post-Amt,*) which is directed by a Chief, who receives his orders direct from the King. All the Post-Offices are under his authority, although they are subjected to the inspection of the Presidents of the Provinces, and under the surveillance (*Aufsicht*) of the Police. The Presidents, on discovering deviations from the rules of the Police, have the right only to report to the Director-General of the Post-Office. The Bureau for the sale of Foreign Newspapers* and the Bulletins, or new decrees and laws; the Bureau of Announcements and Advertisements (*Intelligenz-Comptoir*),

* Individuals are prohibited the selling of Foreign Newspapers or even carrying them into Prussia, without the permission of the above department.

and the special Royal Court Posts for government dispatches, etc., are all under the *General-Post-Amt.*

II. The Royal Bank *(Die Kœnigliche-Haupt-Bank)*, is divided into three sections, viz :—

First.—The principal Bureau *(Das Haupt-Comptoir)* is charged with the purchase of gold and silver for the Mint, discounting Bills of Exchange, the transport of the Revenues of the State, and generally to negociate payments.

Second.—The second Bureau *(Deposition-Comptoir)*, receives all deposits paid to the Bank. The minimum is 50 thalers, the rate of interest is 2 per cent. On funds belonging to benevolent institutions *(Milde Stiftungen)* 2½ per cent is paid. Capital belonging to minors, deposited in the Bank, draws an interest of 3 per cent.

Third —The Bureau of Discounts *(Discondo-Comptoir)* makes advances on obligations, of mortgages in the shape of cupons *(Pfandbriefe)* transferable without formality or endorsement, and payable on demand.

The Royal Bank has also bureaux or branches established at Breslaw, Cologne, Dantzic, Königsberg, Magdeburg, Münster, and Stettin.

The Bills of the Bank are equally available, gratis, at all the branches of the Bank, and are a legal tender in all public payments at their nominal value.

III. The Chamber of Audit *(Ober-Rechnungs-Kammer)* is charged with the examination of Receipt and Expenditure of Public Money. It detects all irregularities in accounts; and delivers receipts on payment to those accountable for deficiencies to government. If the deficit

is not made up by those accountable, they can only, by his order from the monarch, be relieved from responsibility. The Court of Audit cannot of itself pronounce upon the utility of the expenditure of public money by the Government functionaries. *(Zweckmässigkeit der Verwendung).*

IV. The General Administration of Public Debt. *(Die Hauptverwaltung der Staats Schulden.)*

This department regulates the general business of the national debt.

The first division *(Staats Schulden-Tilguns-Kasse)*, regulates the payments for reducing the capital of the public debt, and the management of the Sinking Fund.

The Second *(Die-Controlle der Staats Papiere)* controls the circulation of the National Paper Money and Treasury Bills, and

Third, the Special Commission for cancelling public bills, or securities, drawn in the form for circulation *(Zur Vernichtung der duzu bestimmten Staats-Papiere).*

A President and four members, named by the King, compose this department.

V. The Committee of Maritime Commerce *(Die-See-Handlung)* is directed by a Chief, who is nominated by the King, and only responsible to his Majesty, being independant of every Ministry.

The principal business of this Institute is the transactions of all commercial affairs as well in the country as the exterior, of which the government may want information, &c.

GENERAL, PROVINCIAL, AND MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATIONS.

The Civil and Military Divisions of Prussia are the same, viz.—Eight Provinces, in each of which there is a Military Commandant, and a Supreme Civil President *(Ober-Präsident.)**

There is in each province a Supreme Court of Justice *(Ober-Land-Gericht)*; a Director of the Provincial Taxes *(Provenzial-Steuer-Director)*; and a Provincial Consistory *(Provenzial-Consistorium.)*

REGENCIES.

Prussia is further divided into twenty-five governments, Regencies *(Regierungs-Bezirke)*, each administered by a Council, with a President. These Councils correspond directly with the Minister; but in matters specially

* The attributions of the Chief President are laid down in the Royal Instructions, dated 2nd October, 1817. They make a circuit of the Province once a-year; see that the ministerial orders are executed in the Regencies; preside at the consistories and medical committees of health; forward annual projects to Government for the Provincial administration, and also an account of the execution of such instructions as they received from the Supreme Government.

In time of war they are bound to concert immediate means, on the approach of the enemy, with the Military Commandant, for the defence of the country.

The Colleges, Medical Councils or Colleges, Finances Catholic Clergy, and the Archives of their respective provinces, are under their care and superintendence.

relating to the province, they must first confer with the Supreme President. They decide by a majority of votes.

CIRCLES.—(*Kreise.*)

The Governments, or Regencies, are subdivided into 328 circles *(Kreise)*, in which there is a country magistrate (*Landrath).* The circles are also subdivided into small municipal distinctions or communes *(Gemeinden)*, but all towns have their particular administration, which may correspond directly with the Council of Regency. All the municipal and commercial authorities are directly subordinate to the Regencies, except those specially charged with the direction of the police. Each administrative division of the provinces had officers appointed for the respective sections of justice, military affairs, revenue, taxes, royal domains, forests, public buildings, post-offices, diligences, and police.

COMMUNES.—*(Gemeinden.)*

The rural population of Prussia are divided into four classes according to the tax they pay. 1. Those who pay a certain fixed sum (see Finances), are *Bauern (*peasants or country people.) 2. Those who pay less down to half are *Halb-Bauern.* 3. Those who have merely a small cottage, with a small spot of ground, are termed *Büdner,* or *Kossaten;* and 4. Those who have properly speaking, no homes, or merely labourers; who, if they cannot otherwise subsist, must be maintained by the communes.

In the *Gemeinden,* or divisions, which correspond in some respects with communes in France, but more so with the hundreds in England; there is a *Schulze,* nearly,

in power, similar to High Constable in England, and partially, to Mayor in France. They (the *Shulzen*) are assisted in their administration by a Council (*Gerichts Maener*) *i. e.* men to do what is right. Both the *Shulzen* and *Gerichts Maener* are elected by the *Bauern* and *Halb-Bauern*. They are chosen, however, from among the former. The elections are, or must be, confirmed by the *Landrath*.*

The Municipal Administration of towns is somewhat more complicated; and, by the Municipal Law of 1831, much more restricted than by the more primitive law of 1808.†

There is in every town a *Bürger-meister* (a borough, or

We frequently trace the remains and effects of original governments, according to the language that is generally spoken: for example, where the Saxon language prevails, as in Germany and England, local municipal jurisdiction and the elective principle prevails: where languages of Celtic or Latin origin predominates, as in France, &c., Roman laws, and the system of centralization, which renders all municipal appointments dependent on the Supreme Government, is general. An exception appears in Spain, but their elective municipalities may be more properly considered of Gothic than of Roman origin. The feudal tenures certainly may. To the Municipal Elections in Prussia, stated in the text, there is a frequent exception. In the villages, where the farms belong to the nobles, or other landholders, the proprietors appoint the *Dorfschulzen*, or mayor. The confirmation of the Landrath is another shackle on the elective principle.

† See the work by M. Alexander Mirus, entitled, "Uebersichtliche Dartellung des Preussischen Staats Rechts, &c." Berlin, 1833; also a work on the Municipal Laws, entitled, "*Die Städte* Ordnung von 1808, mit der revidirten Städte Ordnung nach ihren Abzeichungen Zusammengestellt." Berlin, 1818. These are the best printed authorities,

townmaster.) Three Common Councilmen (*Stadt-Raethe,*) a Syndic (*Syndicus*), a treasurer (*Kaemmerer*), and an assembly of the delegates of the town (*Stadt-Verordneten-Versammlung.*)

The number of Municipal Counsellors are, generally, according to the population and wealth of the towns. In the large, or first class towns, there are often two *Bürger-Meisters,* the first of which is termed the *Ober Bürger-Meister.*

All authorities agree that the Municipal affairs of Prussia are strictly administered. The elective principle prevails, and the *Landrath* is considered to be as much the man of the people as of the crown.

The *Bauern* and Notables of the *Kreise,* or Circle, presents a candidate, who should be a proprietor within the Circle; and if the Regency in which the *Kreise* is situated, recommends the nomination, the King confirms the appointment.

As the Civil and Military Divisions of Prussia are the same, the *Landrath,* the *Bürger-meister* of the largest town in the *Gemeinden,* a chief of battalion of *Landwehr,* with two notables of the Circle, form a commission for recruiting the active army. In each province there is also an Inspector of the *Landwehr* (usually a general or superior officer), who is in immediate correspondence and conference with the civil authorities, on all matters which concern the organization, instruction, &c., of the *Landwehr.* There is, therefore, in consequence, the most close connexion between the military and civil authorities, as well as between the rural population and the army throughout Prussia.

COURTS OF JUSTICE, &c.

The Inferior Justice Courts, or Courts of First Instance are the *Stadt-Gerichte*, or Town Courts, and *Land-Gerichte*, Country Courts. Appeals lay from thence to the *Kammer-Gericht*, or Supreme Court; and, finally, to either of the two Supreme Tribunals at Berlin, which, in the Prussian Code, correspond with the Court of Cassation at Paris. The pleadings are in writing, and not *viva voce*.

The Provincial Consistories are each divided into three sections. The first composed of Ecclesiastics (Protestants and Catholic) for Ecclesiastical Affairs;* the second, for Public Instruction, as far as regards primary and secondary education; the Universities, or schools of superior instruction, being immediately under the direction of the Minister of Public Instruction; and the third, for all matters relative to the public health. The Consistory is presided over by a chief President; but each section deliberates separately, and decides by a majority of votes.

Usages, or ancient customs, long in practice, are often of more weight, especially in Municipal and Provincial Administration, than either the Prussian Code, or the Napoleon Code in Rhenish Prussia. German, Swedish, and Polish laws are also still in force in respective parts of the monarchy. There are, consequently, deviations in detail from all general rules, which renders it difficult to state the functions of those in authority, or the precise powers of the secondary and inferior tribunals.

* There is no State religion nor tithes in Prussia; but all clergymen with congregations are respectably provided for.

Each *Kreis* has a tribunal of First Instance (*Land-Gericht*) which is also a superior tribunal (*Ober-Gericht*), which must not be confounded with courts of inferior rank in towns; and in nearly all the rural communes, with the exception of the provinces, which are administered by the Code Napoleon, or by other laws. The judicial authorities of the towns are styled Magistrates; those of the rural communes, *Patrimonial-Gerichte*.

PROVINCIAL STATES.

In Prussia, since the arrangement effected between the serfs, and seignioral lords, landed property has been so generally divided, that, although there are innumerable moderate fortunes, and small landed proprietors, there are, comparatively speaking, but few very rich men, or great landholders. From the time of Frederick II. to the present day, it has been the object of the Monarch to render the aristocracy powerless as a body in the State; the king having *de facto* invested himself with the power once exercised in the State by the nobility. Provincial States were formed in consequence of the solemn promise of the present king to give Prussia a free Constitution. This promise has not been fulfilled.

After a delay of ten years, the following law, giving a partial representation to the people, in Provincial Assemblies only, was promulgated.

GENERAL LAW RELATIVE TO THE ORGANISATION OF PROVINCIAL STATES, DATED 5TH JUNE, 1823.

We, Frederick William, by the grace of God, King of Prussia,

In order to give to our faithful subjects a new and permanent pledge of our confidence and paternal affection, have resolved to fix the basis of our relations with the different orders of the inhabitants of our monarchy, and, with this intention, to create Provincial States, according to the spirit of the ancient Germanic Constitutions, and according as local circumstances, and the exigencies of the times shall require.

We appointed a Commission, of which our Son, his Royal Highness, the hereditary Prince, is President, for forming a report, which report will be submitted for consideration to persons of experience chosen from each province.

The Report upon this subject having been laid before us, we decree—

I.

Provincial States shall be constituted in our Monarchy.

II.

Possession of landed property is the required condition of forming a part of them.

III.

The Provincial States in each Province are the legal organs of the different states of our subjects.

In conformity with these determinations—

1st. It belongs to the Provincial States to deliberate upon proposed laws only which affect the local interests of each province respectively.

2ndly. Provided there are no States General, we will cause them to propose general laws modifying personal rights, and those of property and taxation, provided these laws relate to the Province.

3rdly. Petitions and complaints relating to the welfare and special interests of the whole or part of each Province, may be addressed to us by the Provincial States: we will examine and take them into consideration.

4thly. Communal rights and interests in each Province are left to the decision and superintendence of the Provincial States, subject, however, to our approval.

The present general law, which, however, is not to be applicable to the principality of Neufchatel and Valangin, shall be followed by a special law for each Province, which shall determine the form and limits of their organisation as States.

If, in future, it be judged by us to be indispensable or necessary to effect any alteration in any of these different special laws, we will do so only after having taken the advice of the Provincial States.

Should a convocation of States-General become necessary, we will, in our solicitude for the country, adopt such decisions as we shall consider expedient, and we will also decide upon the method of constructing these States-General from the provincial States.

Given at Berlin, 5th June, 1823.

(Signed) FREDERICK WILLIAM,
DE SCHUCKMANN.

The Provincial States are composed as follows :—

In the provinces of Saxony, Silesia, Westphalia, and the Rhine, of four estates, viz

1. The higher class of nobility, as the mediatised princes* and nobles independent seignories, who send deputies, compose the First Estate.

2. The members of the Second Estate are nominated by landholders possessing certain incomes by descent, or for ten years previous, without reference to birth.

3. The Third Estate consists of the deputies of towns, which nominate magistrates.

4. The Fourth Estate is composed of members chosen by the proprietors, not included in the electors to the Second Estate, and by hereditary farmers and peasants electing:—First, an elector for each village; who, secondly, elect or name the deputy to the Fourth Estate.

The provinces of Prussia, Posen, Brandenburg, and Pomerania, have each (from these not the elements of a primary noble estate) three estates, corresponding with the 2nd, 3rd and 4th, in the other provinces.

The numbers of the respective Estates are distributed as follows:—

PROVINCES.	ESTATES.				TOTAL.
	1st.	2nd.	3rd.	4th.	
Silesia	6	36	28	34	84
Saxony	6	22	24	72	72
Westphalia	11	20	29	71	71
Rhine	4	25	25	79	79
Prussia	—	45	28	22	95
Posen	—	24	16	8	48
Brandenburg	—	34	22	12	68
Pomerania	—	24	16	8	48
Total	27	287	179	122	565

* These are princes with States and Revenues, but which have no vote in the Germanic Confederation. Seventeen of these States are embodied within the Prussian Monarchy.

The assembling of the foregoing eight Provincial Estates, as one legislative deliberative body, in two chambers, it will be perceived, would have a widely different control over the executive government, to the powerless influence of eight disjointed meetings, unacquainted with the views of each other, or of the respective conditions of the several provinces, and half of these states divided into four, and half into three sections, neither of which possess initiative or legislative authority.

The King appoints the President and Vice-President of the Provincial Estates from among the first and second estates, in the foregoing table. The President is styled, Marshall of the States. The King fixes the duration of the Session.

A Deputy must be a Christian by profession, possess fixed property, be of good reputation, and, except in the case of mediatised princes, thirty years of age. They are elected for six years, half vacating their seats every three years; but still being eligible to re-election.

An Elector must be twenty-five years of age, possessing certain fixed property.

A Commission, appointed by the King, convokes and meets the Estates, and after divine service, declares the Estates opened. He is the organ between the King and the Estates, but takes no part in the deliberations, further than addressing them to make communications, or require deputations being sent to him.

The Sections of the Estates meet, ranged according to rank, in one assembly; but each may withdraw, on being outweighed in opinion, or it may deliberate separately. In forming decisions, three-fourths of the members must be present. A majority of two-thirds is necessary on

points proposed to them by the King. In other matters, a simple majority carries the question. The sittings are private; but the final result, not the deliberations, are afterwards published.

FINANCES.

The condition of a nation that has been devastated and subjected to such unmerciful plunder as Prussia has been when the French armies overran her territories, and that has without increasing a heavy national debt, overcome those disasters, forms a subject of the most important inquiry—My limits in these notes forbid me entering into details, which is, however, almost unnecessary, as I am preparing full statements relative to the finances and resources of Prussia in another work.* The following brief statement relative to the territorial or agricultural banks, which lent so convenient and useful an aid to the cultivation of the soil, and also a brief recapitulation of the revenue and expenditure of the kingdom, may here be interesting.

The principal object of Frederick the Great after his bloody wars of defence and conquest, was to ameliorate the condition of the land proprietors, and nobles of Silesia who had been ruined during the war, and to give encouragement generally to the agriculture of the kingdom.

The success of the first land bank established with that view in 1769, far surpassed expectation, and the inhabitants of the other Prussian provinces, soon after solicited and obtained similar institutions to that of Silesia.

In 1777, a Territorial Bank *(Landschafts-Casse)*, was

* See Resources and Statistics of Nations, vol ii.

established in the March of Brandenburg, others in 1781, in Pomerania; 1787, in Western Prussia; 1788, in East Prussia; and in the year 1821, in the Grand Duchy of Posen.

These Institutions are called *Landschafts-Credit-Vereine* or *Schaftliche-Credit-Vereine*, which in meaning is equivalent to the company of Seignioral Proprietors for mutual assistance on the basis of landed security.

In virtue of this system, each landholder whose property is valued at not less than 500 thalers (about 80*l.* sterling) in some provinces, as in the March of Brandenburg, the minimum of the value of estates which can be comprised in the system of mutual assurance, is of 600 thalers (about 95*l.* sterling), has the right to become a member of the society. With this guarantee, they have the right to contract a debt upon the security of their estates to the proportion of value stated by a committee, chosen by the society out of its own members. Ordinarily the sum must not exceed two-thirds of the estimated value of the estates.

All the members of the society, are equally contractors of the companies debts, interest included.

The obligatory notes of the society are issued like national money, payable to bearers, and their transfer not subjected to any formality. Interest is stipulated for at four per cent.

Each province has its *bureau* of administration. The credits and securities, in *solido*, are larger in certain provinces than in others. Whilst in certain provinces the society guarantees the credits as far as two-thirds of the value of estates, in others only to the value of one third. The system of credit introduced into the Grand Duchy of

Posen, has the peculiarity of allowing for the redemption of the debt in 70 years, by means of 1 per cent in addition to the 4 per cent. interest. The debtor paying, besides the stipulated interest of 4 per cent, a half per cent every six months to cover the expense of administration and the collection and payment to the bearers of notes.

All the administrative *bureaux* are held in a condition to pay the interests on the *coupons*, to their holders, in every principal town of the Prussian Monarchy, without any charge to those who hold the notes of the society.

In the Grand Duchy of Posen the obligations for money lent are to be paid within 42 years, according to the plan published by the society.

The Proprietors who do not pay the interest, at the stipulated time, on the money they borrow, have their estates sequestered to meet the demands of the society, and at the sole cost of the debtor. This seldom occurs.

The progress which Prussia has been making since the peace of 1815; her Commercial League; the extraordinary increase of her manufactures, especially in the Rhenish Provinces and in Silesia; the probability that Belgium and Switzerland will join the League; the secret agency of Russia in the political views and aggrandisement of Prussia, are all subjects which require the attention of the British Statesman and the British people, and should lead to more liberal changes in our commercial taxation.

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE OF

Decreed by Royal Ordinance of May 8th, and

RECEIPTS.

	Thalers.
Administration of Domains and Forests, deducting the part reserved for the feoffee of trust of the Crown..	4,212,000
Capital for redemption of rents of Domains and Price of property sold for the Sinking Fund.....	1,000,000
Produce of Mines, Forges, Salt Pits, and of the Manufacture of Porcelain at Berlin	4,717,000
Revenue of the Post Office	1,200,000
Lottery.....	669,000
Taxes, Property (House and Lands)	9,735,000
—— by Classes *	6,404,000
—— upon Industry†	1,973,000
—— on Importation, Exportation, and transit, on the consumption of the Products of the Interior, Duties of Navigation, Stamp duties, &c.	21,418,000
Overplus of the Receipts of the Principality of Lichtenberg	80,000
Divers Receipts, valued at.....	332,000
Total Receipts—Thalers..	51,740,000

* This Tax is similar to the Personal Tax of France.

† Patents or Licenses for carrying on trades, all of which are taxed.

PRUSSIA, FOR THE YEAR 1835.

published in the *Bulletin des Lois* of 1835.*

EXPENDITURE.

		Thalers.
National Debt, viz.:		
— Interest of the General Debt of the kingdom and expenses of Administration	6,397,000	
— Sinking Fund	2,480,000	
— Interest of Debts of divers Provinces	41,000	
		8,918,000
Pensions and Life-rents, viz:		
— Pensions of Public Functionaries, and their widows and children, and other succours	966,000	
— Life-rents due to members of the Ecclesiastical corporations suppressed, &c.	1,584,000	
		2,550,000
Perpetual Rents, viz:		
— Those accorded as indemnity of rights and services suppressed	360,000	
— Interest of capital deposited and warrants	603,000	
		963,000
Cabinet of the King, Bureau of the Minister of State, Great Book of Receipts and Expenditure of the State, Administration of the Treasury and the Mint, Archives of the Kingdom and of the Provinces, Secretary of State, Court of Accounts, the Chancellery of Royal orders, and Statistical Bureau		308,000
Minister of Public Worship, Public Instruction and of the Sanitary Police		2,683,000
Minister of the Interior, Section of Administration and of the Police		2,184,000
Minister of the Interior, Section of Industry and General Commissions		173,000
Administration of Commerce, Manufactures, and of Public Works, with the exception of the roads		1,369,000
Maintenance and construction of roads, including the necessary funds for sinking the money formerly borrowed		2,852,000
Minister for Foreign Affairs		681,000
Minister of War		23,402,000
Central Administration of Finances, viz.:		
— Ministry and General Cashiers	159,000	
— General Administration of Domains and Forests	94,000	
		253,000
Minister of Justice		2,061,000
Departmental Administration		1,766,000
Stud and dépôts of Stallions		167,000
Divers unforeseen expenses and abatements		1,350,000
Total Expenditure		51,740,000

* The above is the official account: but the actual receipts and expenditure are stated by M. David Hauzen to be 77,307,739 thalers. See Resources of Nations, &c. vol. II.

VIII. B. MINERAL WELLS OF NASSAU AND SWITZERLAND.—*Page* 50.

From some accident the manuscript of a sketch of Wiesbaden, in Nassau, which should have appeared in the text of volume ii., was mislaid. We had spent our time agreeably at that celebrated watering place, and although gambling is carried to a most vicious extreme at the saloons of the sumptuous Kursaal, yet in other respects we found Wiesbaden and its neighbourhood among the most agreeable parts of Germany. Its peculiar hot well, the *Kochbrunnen*, (Boiling, or Kitchen Spring), which is transparent, and has, in fact, the taste ascribed to it,—that of chicken broth,—its theatre, or opera—the enchanting music,—the gardens, the promenades, and delightful drives, with excellent accommodation at the hotels, render it a remarkably pleasant resort for some weeks in June and September. In July and August the weather is oppressively hot.

The salutary properties of the hot wells are so renowned as to draw thither 12,000 visitors annually, and Wiesbaden with its resident population of only about 8,000, is consequently a handsome town of superb hotels, baths, bazaars, and lodging-houses. The cures attributed to the waters, if true, seem miraculous. Invalids, they tell you, who came decrepit on crutches from all parts of Germany, have flung away their crutches, and returned home leaping in health, joy, and happiness.

Switzerland is fully as rich in mineral waters as Nassau. Besides the baths of Baden, Schinznach, and Pfeffers, alluded to in the text, the wells of St. Moritz, in the Canton of the Grisons, is much celebrated and frequented. Its water is said to be more sparkling than ever those of

Schwalbach or Seltzers. The baths of Gournigel, in the Canton of Bern, and of Zurich in the Valois, are also resorted to annually by numerous invalids.

XI. GERMAN LEAGUE.—See page 309.

XII. EDUCATION.—See page 266.

XIII. MÜLLER'S WILL.—*Page* 186.

"In the name of God!

"I, THE undersigned, feeling the hour of my dissolution approach, not without deep regret in leaving unexecuted the great plans, in endeavouring to accomplish which I have incessantly laboured; and depressed by the unhappy state of my fortune, which was first broken down by a well known catastrophe at Vienna; and especially reduced since the month of November, 1807, and now entirely ruined, I find it necessary in these, the last moments of my existence, to express my wishes relative to those sad circumstances.

"My days have been spent in labour, and my life has been doomed to suffering. My various duties and charges I have fulfilled disinterestedly and often with satisfaction. Let mankind, therefore, not disregard my last request.

"Sufficient money will, I hope, be found after my decease to defray the expense of my interment, and the maintenance of my faithful servant, Michel Fuchs, in my

house, until the furniture is sold or removed, and also a month's wages to each of my other servants.

"As my debts exceed the value of my effects, I have properly no occasion to name an heir, but in this quality to settle my affairs, I nominate my brother, John George Müller, Professor and Member of the Senate of Schaffhausen; and for my executor I name my said servant, Michell Fuchs, who understands all my circumstances.

"Could I have had the power of living even for four years longer with my actual income, or if I were left to pursue my labours for seven years, I should die with the consolation of having paid all my debts."

He then states that his library consists of about 8,000 volumes well selected—of numerous manuscripts — the manuscript of his work on Universal History, &c., to be prepared for publication by his brother—and then concludes in the following remarkable manner:—

"How much, in this last state of perplexity, my heart burns with the desire of addressing those for whom I have principally lived, and who have to me been always the most dear—to you, my compatriots of the confederated towns and country of Switzerland, I leave the guardianship of my bequests. Implant with the ancient sentiment of generosity of your noble governments, and with the loyal character of your flourishing youth, the pleasing hope that you will realize the last wish* of your historian and friend. But that which we can only expect at most for rich England to accomplish, how am I to hope for in my exhausted country? And thou, Berne, patriotic

* His wish alludes to throwing off the French supremacy; and assuming independence.

honour to thy name! thou good and wise Zurich—well-beloved Waldstetten, neighbours of the Alps, and you all who inhabit our mountains and plains—in all whom I recognize and esteem the Helvetian virtues—your remembrances will wander with me to the abodes of eternal bliss. And if there be found there a place assigned to those noble Switzers—the ornaments of the olden time, I will tell the fathers that the remembrance of their deeds and the feats of their example still flourish in the hearts and conduct of their children.

"Adieu, brother and sister! —adieu, my country—the joy, the ornament of my soul! May the God of our fathers grant thee peace and liberty! I wished to have written the history of mankind from the creation to our day.—My life will not endure—will not suffice to accomplish my purpose."

"*Cassel*, 7th July, 1808.

(Signed) JOHN VON MÜLLER,
Counsellor of State to the King of Westphalia.

XIV. WILD ANIMALS, FOWLS, LAKE FISH.—*Page* 194.

ALTHOUGH the Ibex and most other wild animals common to Switzerland are now seldom to be seen, various anecdotes, as extraordinary as if they were fighting about the funds in Change Alley, are still related of combats between bears and bulls, although none of the former have been killed since 1797, and very few have appeared after that year. The mountaineers say, that when a bull smelt a bear in the vicinity, the former became restless, and sought

out the latter, giving furious battle—the bear using feints and dexterous evasions, until they closed;—that, on the mountains and in woods, the bull was usually conqueror, but that, in the valley or plain, the bear vanquished the bull. This contradicts the usual belief, and in America, I know personally, that a full grown bear, in the woods, will subdue the largest bull. Simond also quotes the same.

The storks which abound near the banks of the Rhine and the lakes, are described by Simond, as building their nests even on high roofs and chimneys, as well as on steeples and towers. He also remarks, that the trout, of the *black Lutschinen*, the waters of which are darkened with clay slate, have silver scales, while those of the other rivers are brown.

The multitude of fishes which swarm in the Swiss lakes is astonishing. The delicious blue lavaret trout, and the small salmon trout of Constance are caught in great abundance. The trout of Geneva weigh, frequently, thirty, sometimes fifty pounds, and the species called *Feras*, and the *dark chevaliers*, are justly esteemed. It is singular, that no eels have ever been caught in this lake. The limpidity of the water, and the scarcity of muddy flats may account for their absence. Perch, pike, and many other varieties are as fine and plentiful as the fresh water fish of any country, and form no inconsiderable means of sustenance to the inhabitants of every part of Switzerland.

XV. CHAMOIS HUNTING.—*Page* 204.

The inhabitants of the Alps of Appenzell have at all times been courageous hunters; but that shy animal the

Chamois has now become so rare, that they afford but little temptation for undertaking perilous enterprise, except in the superior Alps of Bern, Savoy, and the Tyrol.

PEASANTRY OF APPENZELL, ST. GALL, AND THE DEMOCRATIC CANTONS.—*Page* 204.

THERE is the most distinctly marked difference between the manners of the inhabitants of outer (*ausser*) and inner Rhodes. The Catholics being far from so rigid as the Protestants. The people of St. Gall are cheerful and fond of singing, dancing, and Sunday recreation. The subscription balls of that Canton and Thurgau, among the higher classes, often become party *coteries*. The inhabitants of all the democratic Cantons are, in appearance, happy, and pay no imposts;—they are electors of their own magistrates, eligible themselves to all posts, sovereigns in their cottages, and law-givers in the *Langesmeinde*. Hospitable, ignorant, and superstitious, the Catholics spend one-sixth of the year, exclusive of Sunday, in fêtes, processions, and fasts.

In the valley of Bergel, in the Grisons, the women are of extraordinary activity; while their husbands are transporting merchandize over the Alps to Italy, the wives are herding cattle, mowing, reaping, carrying loads home on their shoulders, yet they manage to rear their children and attend to their household affairs.—They are stout and well made, and fresh complexioned when young, but lose their beauty in early life. A white handkerchief, black corset, and apron bordered with scarlet ribbon, dark blue apron and petticoats, red woollen stockings, com-

plete their simple but agreeable costume. The young girls tie up their hair in tresses round the crown, fastened with a silver arrow or needle. The old women wear a *tocque* of black velvet—the men are clad in blue vests, blue breeches, all alike, and well made.

In Bergel, the men dance together, without women; the girls range round the communion table and sing canticles before and after divine service.

The Pfeiffers or fifers of Zurich, Winterthur, St Gall, and Thurgau, no longer exist as a class. They were mustered under a chief or sovereign, called Pfeiffer König, and the members held themselves ready to play at the masks of the carnival, at weddings, balls, &c. There were laws in their favour, as, "If any one injures a fifer, the latter may place the former in the sun near a wall, and beat his shadow.—If a youth affronts a fifer, the former shall be compelled to look on a bright buckler, on which the sun's rays strike." The fifers have to this day continued to perform in the military music of Switzerland, as they have also done in that of England.

Of all the inhabitants of the Swiss Cantons, the people of the Valois, particularly those of the upper valley, remain the least changed by the force of modern example. They love, it is said, their obscurity and are jealous of intrusion. They have no cabarets, no beggars. They are ignorant, and consider even poverty in some degree necessary to happiness. The marriage tie is scrupulously observed. If a young woman be frail, her parents and those of her lover, who exercise patriarchal authority over submissive families, insist on the immediate marriage of the parties, which invariably takes place. Their dwellings are simple and poorly furnished—their

churches large and splendidly decorated. These ignorant people, however, on assembling each evening, in the principal place of their valley, or village, surrounded by glaciers, rocks, Alps, woods, and waterfalls, all in common devotion, attest not only their religious zeal, but form, when they are in loud chorus, a most sublime spectacle.

The severe laws of the Valois, although still rigid, have been greatly ameliorated. The rich are no longer fined because wealth was considered incompatible with democratic institutions. An unfortunate debtor is no longer forced to sit nearly naked on a large block of ice, beseeching temporary forgiveness, in a most humiliating attitude. Prosecutions for sorcery, which were once so common, have ceased, although the belief is common. The redoubtable *Mazze*, which expelled so many from the country, no longer exists. By it when a man lost public favour, all who would destroy him, first drove a nail into a mass of wood shaped rudely into the form of a human head. When a sufficient number of nails were considered to have been driven into this block, it was placed before the unpopular man's door; who was then cited to appear, and justify himself. He was, however, usually prejudged, and condemned to leave the country on a given day; if he refused, they laid siege to his house or castle, which they pillaged and dismantled, and if he still resisted and refused to depart, he was either destroyed or carried out of the Canton.

In the Waldstetten, a more heroic spirit always prevailed, with a more generous and ardent love of liberty.

An old usage, common at one time in all Germany and Switzerland, still prevails in some towns. In Aargau, a public crier goes round at the hour, crying "It is nine

o'clock—put out your lights and fires, and may God and the Holy Virgin protect you."

XVI. GRISON REPUTATION.—*Page* 231.

THE Grisons have always been remarkably susceptible of any attack upon their good name. As far back as 1543, Sebastian Munster, Professor of Hebrew at the University of Basle, first published his "Universal Cosmography," which was adorned by ludicrous wood cuts and illustrated by maps;—it was full of errors and among others the Engandine was stated to abound in robbers. The Latin edition says *Habet multos latrones;* the German *Sy Sejgend grosser dieb denn die Ziginner*. The Grisons were roused in consequence of their reputation being scandalized—they assembled from all parts and resolved to have satisfaction,—they sent deputies to Basle, but before they arrived, the defamatory passage was defaced by a broad line of black ink, in all the remaining copies. This was not sufficient, as many copies were sold, The deputies said the Engandines were poor yet honest, that their chief fortune was their good name,—that they were consequently more sensible of injury to their character, and that they, the deputies, were directed to demand nothing less than the punishment of the author and printer of the Cosmography. They were told the author had been dead two years, and that the printer Stuppan, was their countryman from Engardine, who, as soon as he was made acquainted with the obnoxious passage, was the first to erase it.

After much disputation, the deputies finally obtained

written abjurations, *in duplicate*, of the calumny from the magistrates and senators of Basle.

XVII. ENSEIDLIN.—*Page* 273.

This celebrated Abbey, which was so long the resort of multitudes of Pilgrims, whose money greatly relieved the neighbouring poor, was plundered and destroyed by the French, who dethroned, as Simond observes, these Republicans.

The celebrated Image of our Lady of the Hermits, to which the pilgrimages were made, was taken to Paris, but restored in 1815. A serious dispute, however, arose as to its authenticity, and the neighbouring clergy protested against re-erecting it in the church, as it would occasion great scandal in bringing thither pilgrims, if it were not the genuine Virgin, in which case it would only form a pretext to encourage the meeting of young girls with their lovers on the road.

XVIII. RUINS OF GOLDAU.—*Page* 278.

The escapes and the deliverances from the Ruins of Goldau appear almost miraculous. Simond relates in his interesting book some of the most remarkable but they are too lengthy to quote.

NOTES TO MY NOTE BOOK.

VOL. III.

XIX. STATISTICS OF EDUCATION IN SWITZERLAND.—*Page* 54.

THE means of instruction are very unequally distributed in Switzerland. Bern, Zurich, Aargau, Schaffhausen, Basel, Neufchatel, Geneva, and Vaud, have, taking them aggregately, in elementary schools, nearly one individual of every eight inhabitants, so that when we calculate the number of children under six years and the proportion of persons over fifteen years of age in the whole population, about 1,100,000, we may conclude that elementary instruction is taught or within the reach of every child above the age of five or six years.

Taking the Cantons in which the Catholics predominate, as Freiburg, Soleure, Zug, Luzerne, St. Gall, to which we may add the Protestant part of Appenzell, Thurgau, and probably Glaris, it is estimated that in a population of 554,000, one in thirteen, at least, actually receive elementary instruction at school, and even in the Grisons, the Valois, Inner Rhodes, Tecino, Uri, Unterwalden,

Schwartz, and half of Glaris, nearly one in nineteen (a greater proportion than even at this day in highly civilized France,)* now receive the benefits of primary instruction.

In the different Cantons of Switzerland the state of public education appears from the various statements I have collected to be as follows:—previous to 1830 I have taken principally the authority of Mr. Picot of Geneva, since then, I have taken my statements from various reports, chiefly those laid before the Federal Diet, and the Governments of Bern and Zurich.

Bern before the late change in its constitution, and since 1805, has had two classes of schools—secondary or inferior, and superior. In the first were comprehended the elementary or primary schools, and also the classes who studied religion, Latin, history, geography, mathematics, French, and the art of design or drawing; also the gymnasium of Bern which is preparatory to the Academy, and which again might, until lately, have been considered the chief college—the others nearly similar to it were and still are at Délémont, Porentrui, and Bienne. The Academy of Bern, had in 1830, about twenty-four Professors for the several courses of antiquities, physics, chemistry, natural history, mathematics (pure), philosophy, history, law, arts and sciences, medicine, and the veterinary art, &c. Since 1830, the means not only of primary but superior instruction have been greatly extended—on a liberal scale, and on perfectly free principles. Besides

* Some time ago M. Charles Dupin, published his chart of France, exhibiting the comparative degrees of light and ignorance over all the departments in shades, which certainly had the effect of making the chart a very dark one. Of late years, however, the means of instruction have been greatly diffused.

the Academy and numerous scientific schools and societies, the Great Council passed a law in March 1834, for the establishment of an *Höheres Gymnasium*, (High School), and an University. Celebrated individuals of high acquirements, chiefly liberal men, who have incurred the displeasure of the despotic rulers of other countries have been invited and appointed to the chairs of the professorships of the new University. Reasonable salaries at least, for Switzerland, have also been fixed. Among the learned men now appointed, are Professor Herzig of Jena, to the chair of statistics; Dr. Siebenpfeiffen of Bavaria (Rhenish), for state policy and the science of government; Professor Gelpek from Bonn (divinity), Professor Troxter of Aarau (as extraordinary in philosophy), Dr. Jahn of Sax Meiningen (clinical medicine), &c.; Dr. Thiel of Jena, (anatomy); Dr. Brumar (chemistry); and Dr. Mohle (botany) are also to fill chairs.

In the new High School, which has thirty-two masters and three hundred and twenty pupils—Greek, Hebrew, Latin, (both language and literature), German, French, mathematics, geography, natural history, elementary philosophy, the latter subdivided into theology, history, logic, and psychology, are all to be taught in three courses, each course to comprehend a year's study; a school of industry is to be added. Probably this has been suggested from the useful practical result of M. Von Fellenberg's institutions.

The courses to be given at the University are:—

1. Divinity,
2. *Staats-Wissen-Schaften*, (Political Science including Jurisprudence.)

3. Medicine,
4. Philosophy,
5. Science of Education,
6. Philosophy and Historical Science,
7. Fine Arts and Belles Lettres,
8. Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, and Natural History,
9. Technical, Economical, and Military Science.

The salaries fixed for Professors in ordinary are about 162*l.* sterling, and for tutors about 28*l.* per annum. Lectures are always to be delivered in German, except it be by sufferance on peculiar occasions in Latin or French. The many other regulations are too lengthy to enumerate, and relate chiefly to the management, which is to be intrusted to a Senate of Professors, which will grant diplomas, &c. There is to be a rector of the University and a dean of each faculty.

The general Board of Education for the Canton, is to fix an annual credit for the University.* The primary and secondary schools of this Canton, including the institutions at Hofwyl, and all others for education, may be considered to impart instruction, according to the Report of the Board of Education, to rather more than one in eight of the population. In the school of Arts, established eight years ago at Bern, artificers and tradesmen generally are, according to their vocations, taught gratis in the evening, when the hours of labour are over, (chiefly by lectures), orthography and letter-writing in the German language, arithmetic and geography.

The University of Bern was open in November, after I was there, (1834).

ZURICH.—In religious matters, this Canton is divided into ten chapters, each of which have from eleven to twenty-two curates; some have also one deaconry, and the town of Zurich, eight.

In respect to schools, the Canton is divided into fifteen sections or circles, subdivided into one hundred and two districts, in which according to Picot's Statistics of Switzerland, there were in 1817, no less than three hundred and seventy-eight elementary schools, with thirty-five thousand pupils, from six to sixteen years of age, or about ninety-two to each school, which was at that time about one to six of the population of the Canton. This appears somewhat too great a calculation.

The Report laid before the Diet, for the year ending Midsummer 1833, however, gives even a greater number, that is 576 parish schools, including about forty secondary shools, having in all 49,187 pupils, which in a population, at most no more than 250,000, gives one to five of the inhabitants, as receiving instruction. If this be correct as we have reason to believe, no rising generation on earth are now so generally educated. The annual grant of government is about 80,000 Swiss francs, being a little more than 5,000*l.* sterling.

The masters in the primary schools were so meanly paid hitherto, that the course of instruction must have been wretched—the country schoolmasters received about 4*l.* a year. Hereafter, they are, from the increase of the annual cantonal grant, to be paid about 21*l.*, with some perquisites, which may amount to from 5*l.* to 15*l* additional.

The late change in the government led to a change soon after in the administration of Public Instruction. A

law was passed for extending the means, and improving the system of public education. A cantonal school, divided into a gymnasium, or grammar school, and a school of arts or industry, (*Industrieschule*); a normal school for preparing masters for the country schools, and finally an University, have been established in accordance with this law and the report which accompanied it.

The salaries of the Professors in the University are about 120*l.*, with some fees; and many eminent professors have lately accepted the several chairs.

It would appear that the views of the government are chiefly directed to the instruction of the lower classes.

The following extracts from the School-law will, perhaps, best illustrate the subject.

"National schools are established and maintained for the purpose of instructing the children of all classes, that they may be intelligently active, useful to society, moral, and religious.

"The State therefore directs the establishment of common and higher public schools.

"The subject of education in common schools shall consist of—

"1. Elementary instruction (for pupils from six to nine years of age); the chief object of which is to exercise the various powers of intellect.

"Language: exercises in speaking, thinking, memory, reading and writing.

"Calculation: mental, on the slate, with practice in the four common rules.

"Form: distinguishing respective forms, reducing them to simple elements, classing and combining as preparatory to geometry.

"Elementary singing.

"2. Real useful instruction for pupils from nine to twelve years of age.

"Language: grammar, themes.

"Arithmetic, as applicable to business.

"Geometry and Form.

"Leading facts in the history, geography, and the constitution of Switzerland.

"Outlines of the geography of Europe, and of Universal geography.

"Outlines of general history.

"Natural history, and geography, as applicable to agriculture and trade.

"3. Cultivation of taste.

"Reading, and learning poetry by heart; singing, drawing, calligraphy.

"4. Religious instruction.

"Sacred history (abridged), cultivating moral and religious feelings and ideas, preparatory to religious instruction for the church; the latter not being connected with the national schools.

"While knowledge and accomplishments are taught as essential, the first object of teaching will always be, improvement of the understanding.

"Pupils above twelve years of age, must be taught, and learn six lessons a week at the common schools unless they have also entered a 'higher' school.

"No pupil allowed to be absent from the lessons unless from necessity. Pupils leave the school at fifteen, before which they cannot engage in any service, unless their employers agree to let them attend school at the fixed hours. Parents and guardians may be fined each day, for

neglecting to send their children to attend the regular lessons.

"During holidays, not to exceed from four to eight weeks in the year, there is to be at least one lesson learnt every day.

"Every year, from twelve to eighteen young men are to be received into the *Musterschule* (normal school), from the Canton of Zurich. There are to be sixteen exhibitions, each one hundred francs, for two successive years.

"Each year there are to be four meetings, under the direction of the Board or Council of Education, and all schoolmasters and candidates, within the district must attend. The object of these meetings, is, that schoolmasters may from time to time improve themselves. 1, by teaching, both with respect to method and manner. 2, by teaching on questions relating to leading points of education; and by making up extracts from important works on that subject. 3, by communicating their respective views as to teaching, and to experimental facts gathered from experience. 4, by diffusing the knowledge of schoolbooks. Each member of these meetings is required to write one treatise every three months, and to forward the same to the Council of Education."

IN REGARD TO THE HIGHER SCHOOLS,

"Government will provide all citizens with the means of cultivating the useful arts and sciences according to their free choice.

"For this purpose the State establishes a Cantonal school above the common national schools, and a high school, Hochschule or University.

"The Cantonal school is divided into a Gymnasium and Industrieschule.

"The Gymnasium will be a preparatory school for those who intend to devote themselves to the learned professions.

"The subjects of instruction in the lower Gymnasium, for pupils from twelve to sixteen years of age, religion, Latin, Greek, mathematics, geography, history, singing, instruction in drawing, calligraphy.

"In the upper Gymnasium, for pupils from sixteen to nineteen years of age.

"First Class.

"Religion, Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages, German language and literature, mathematics, natural history, and geography.

"Second class,

"Latin, Greek language and literature, Hebrew language, German language, and literature, history, mathematics, physics.

"Third class,

"The same as the second, with mathematical geography, and introduction to the philosophical studies.

"All classes to be taught singing, and for each two public examinations in the year.

"The Industrieschule, to be adapted to those who are to follow technical professions and trades, and to be divided into two sections.

"The lower for pupils from twelve to fifteen years of age, either to prepare them for the upper school, or to finish their instruction for any of the common trades.

"The subjects are, religion, mathematics, natural history and physics; geometrical and common drawing, German

and French languages; history and geography, practical arithmetic, singing and caligraphy.

"The upper school, it will be left to the choice of every student to learn what lessons he may choose, but having once entered the class, he must attend it. Students are not precluded although engaged in business during the greater part of the day.

"The subjects of lectures are; mathematics, natural philosophy, geometrical and common drawing, commercial arithmetic, and book-keeping, the German, French, Italian, and English languages, and caligraphy.

"In the lower school there will be one public examination every year.

"The object of the University, or Hochschule, is partly to cultivate and to extend the general province of all science, partly to improve the condition of church and state, by bestowing a superior education for the learned professions.

"With one splendid exception, that of unlimited freedom, and opportunity of studying civil history and general policy, the University of Zurich is similar to those of Prussia.

"The masters and professors, unlike those of Prussia, are in a great measure independent of the government for they can only be removed on being allowed a pension, and in the report of the council of education it is remarked,

"Without good schools, there can be no national prosperity, without good teachers, there can be no good schools, and without competent salaries, there can be no good masters."

In the common schools there is no distinction as to the plan, or amount of instruction between boys and girls.

Zurich which has at all times been eminent for learning, which, in fact, has given birth to elegance in German literature is now in its University prepared to surpass all those of Germany.

The existence of the *Burschenschaft* in the former is denied by professor Oken, while the liberal course of studies already alarm the German governments.

The council of education decided, at once, wisely for the permanency, usefulness and celebrity of the University, by inviting eminent men to the professorships; among these are the celebrated Dr. Oken, the rector, and professor of philosophy,—J. E. Schoënlein, one of the first lecturers and pathologers in Europe, H. Locker, J. L. Balber, Zevingle, H. Demme, Spoendli, and Von Pommer, in medical sciences, &c.—J. J. Hottinger, J. G. Baiter, Schinz, Snell, Orelli, Roebuck, and Loewig, in philosophy, &c.—Schulthess, Hirsell, Hitzeg, and Hess, in divinity,—F. L. Keller, G. Snell, Escher, Bluntschli, and Seuffert, in law, &c.

Basel.—Previous to the late disasters which had distracted and divided the Canton, the University of Basel, although far from maintaining its former celebrity, was still a respectable and useful seat of learning. The country part of the population have lately insisted on the funds and property of the University to be divided, thus, in effect, to break up that ancient institution. Measures, however, have lately been adopted, although tardily, for maintaining or rather reorganising the University, which is to have faculties of theology, jurisprudence, philosophy, and medicine.

I am not exactly informed under what circumstances, but if the *millionaires* of Basel were to allow its falling

to the ground, they would richly deserve and incur the certain scorn and contempt of all Europe and America. The Cantonal government are to advance rather more than two-thirds of the expense of its maintenance — in all about 45,000 Swiss francs, or nearly 3,000*l.* sterling.

There are in the city of Basel many institutions, especially the society of Public Utility for instructing some hundreds of workmen, at the expense to them of only papers and slate, and numerous Sunday schools, which promote elementary instruction. The country Canton has declined in the diffusion of primary education since the separation from the city.

GENEVA.—More than two-thirds of this Canton are Protestants, who have in the town from fifteen to sixteen pastors, and fourteen to fifteen in the country. The Catholics have also in each Commune a *Curé*, with or without a Vicar, according to the extent of the parish. Greeks, Methodists, English, and Jews, have each places of worship, either in the town or environs.

The college and academy which were founded by Calvin and the council of the state, still flourishes. The faculties are divinity, law, and philosophy,—medicine, which seems unaccountable, has always been wanting, and students in medicine have usually gone from Geneva to Paris or Edinburgh.

Each year those students who distinguish themselves in their respective classes are presented, in public, within the cathedral church of St. Peter, with silver medals as distinctions of merit. This is at variance with the system of Pestalozzi and Von Fellenberg. The professors each pronounce on the same occasion (which is considered as

an intellectual fête at Geneva), a discourse appropriate to the sciences which they respectively teach. At these annual education meetings, which are also styled promotions, from the students being promoted according to merit from an under to an upper class, strangers are admitted. The lectures are nearly gratuitous—about 600 students attend the college, and about 250 the various lectures.

Several institutions, particularly the Gratuitous Infant School, Sunday Schools for labourers' children, the Gratuitous morning and evening Schools, the Society of Catechists, that of Sacred Music, and the School of Design, combine with the College and State Schools in giving additional instruction to from 1,500 to 2,000 children. There are primary schools in all the country parishes in which reading, writing, arithmetic, and sacred music, are taught.

The Society for the Encouragement of Arts, the Society of Natural Sciences, the two Medical Societies, and the Reading Society, all contribute essentially towards instructing the more advanced in learning; and museums, libraries, and the botanic garden afford other liberal opportunities for study.

The private museums of de Lac, Candolle, de Saussure, Necker, Colladon, Moric, and Marin, Lindre, and others, are also open to the naturalist and virtuoso.

In the School of Commerce and Industry, German, French, English, Italian, and useful and scientific knowledge are taught.

There is also an Agricultural School and farm near Geneva at Corra, on the estate of M. Vernet. It is under the direction of M. Gerhardt, formerly of Hofwyl. None

but entirely destitute children are admitted; they are carefully educated and maintained until they reach the age of twenty; they are employed judiciously in pursuits connected with agriculture and mechanics as applied to husbandry. Thirty of the children are maintained by the voluntary benevolence of the inhabitants of Geneva. Their labour is said to be worth about half their expense. The object is, to fit them for situations with farmers until they earn sufficient to enable them to become cultivators of the soil on their own account.

There is an asylum at Plain Palais, instituted for the instruction of children, especially girls, whose families live in a state disgraceful to manners, and dangerous to public moralities.

Female education, both in the middle and higher classes, is much neglected in other Cantons, but specially attended to in Geneva.

Mr. Picot observes very justly of Geneva, "that there are few towns where the sources of benevolence and the means of useful instruction are more abundant. The annual contributions for these objects amount to a large sum."

Public and particular education have essentially contributed to the success of the Genevese youth in their literary career, and in their various avocations through life. They know at once in their own country men of superior education rank side by side with the most distinguished in place of fortune. They know, that their fellow citizens have their eyes fixed upon them, and that public opinion is formed towards them, according to their merit and industry, from infancy upwards. Under these conditions they persevere in a laudable spirit of emulation,

and make unceasing efforts not to be outrun in study and acquirements by their companions and class fellows. The prizes, which are solemnly distributed at the termination of the academic year, form also objects of ambition, and the prospect of attaining distinction to which numerous examples of well-earned merit and honourable success in the persons of many to whom Geneva has given birth, leads them most confidently to hope, and in the end in most cases to realize.

VAUD.—The reformed religion too rigidly, it must be confessed, prevails in the whole of this Canton; with the exception of about 3,000 Catholics in the district of Eschallens, and a few Catholic families in Lausanne. There are 148 Protestant pastors, and eighteen deacons, besides five or six German preachers. All are very moderately paid,—1,000 Swiss francs at first, increasing by additions annually of 200 francs, but never to exceed 2,000 Swiss francs per annum.

An Academical Council which sits at Lausanne, superintends public instruction. As far back as 1812, there were 513 primary schools, in which about 25,000 children of each sex, from seven to sixteen years of age, were educated. The masters, who had salaries of little more than 120 Swiss francs, have been under the superintendence of the parish minister.

In the colleges (which should rather be termed secondary schools) of Lausanne, Iverdan, Moudon, Vevey, Morges, Payerne, Aubonne, Chateaux d'Oex,—Latin, Greek, French, the Elements of Geometry, History, and Geography, have always, since their institution, been taught. Grammar schools, or mere Latin classes have for many

years been established at Arbe, Nyon, Rolle, Aigle, and Bex.

The Academy, or University of Lausanne was founded as far back as 1537, with only two or three Professors. In 1833, there were no less than twenty Professors, for Theology, Hebrew, Greek, Latin, French, Classics, Belles Lettres, Natural Sciences, Law, Medicine, and Surgery. The library of the Academy, founded as far back as 1594, occupies two vast halls. The apartments of the Academy, especially those on the ground floor, for Mathematics, Geography, and Gymnastics, are spacious.

That interesting institution, the Charity School, was founded in 1726 purely from benevolent motives, by good and disinterested persons. One class of scholars, the poorest in this school, are boarded and lodged gratis. The others are educated free of expense.

In 1827, the 591 public schools in this Canton were attended by 25,590 scholars, or rather more than one in seven of the population.

In 1828, there were 204 regulars, or under students at the Academy, and 94 *externés*, or out boarders. They undergo very rigid examinations, especially in Divinity and Jurisprudence.

At present, 1834, there are in the 162 school districts, comprising 388 parishes of the Canton, 626 schools, instructing 29,720 scholars, or about one in six of the 179,000 inhabitants. About 11,000*l.* has been granted this year to maintain the Academy and Schools, and the salaries of the teachers have also been reasonably increased.

NEUCHATEL.—Protestantism is general in this Canton, with the exception of the Catholics in the Convent of

Capuchins, and the whole population of the Communes of Landeun and Cressier. There are thirty-six Protestant pastors for the thirty-three parishes; three of which pastors are for Neuchatel.

Primary education has long been generally diffused in, and accessible to, all the inhabitants of this Canton. The Colleges, or rather Secondary Schools, of Neuchatel and Chaux-de-Fond, have afforded ample means of useful common instruction, but students in Theology have usually gone to Geneva, and those in Law and Medicine to the German Universities. The Canton of Neuchatel has produced many eminent and scientific men. The Society of Patriotic Emulation, instituted in 1791, proposes questions, distributes prizes, &c. Young women of no fortune have in this Canton the opportunity, benevolently extended to them, of receiving an education which qualifies them for governesses: as such they frequently obtain situations in Germany, Holland, and, I believe, occasionally in England.

The national schools last year were 223; pupils, 7,822; about one in seven of the population.

Luzerne.—Although the first printing press in Switzerland was established in this Canton, it has been far less distinguished for learned institutions than any of the foregoing.

The population consists chiefly of Catholics, and there is a Lyceum for Theology and Philosophy, with a Gymnasium for the Fine Arts, and the French language. In these, both of which are in the town, there are seven or eight professors. There is also a Gratuitous School of Design, and there have also been for several years Primary Schools instituted in all the rural communes.

Public instruction is under the superintendance of a commission. There are numerous libraries, but few, if any, learned societies in this Canton.

Of the National Schools not more than half the whole number, one hundred and sixty-six, are open in summer—there are fifteen or sixteen secondary schools. The Government is said to be anxious to improve the state of public instruction, but that the Jesuits' establishment at Freiburg draws away the children of the most wealthy inhabitants.

AARGAU.—The population of this industrious Canton consists of 71,400 Catholics, 79,800 Protestants, and 1,700 Jews. In 1833 the Primary schools were in number two hundred and seventy-six, masters four hundred and forty-one, pupils 33,280, or rather more than one in five of the population.

A council of seven members presides over the schools of this Canton, and report in detail on the conduct of masters and scholars. There have been, since 1814, a secondary school in each district; and a high, or a Cantonal school in the town of Aarau, in which from 1803 to 1813, there existed an excellent institution, where eight masters have given lessons and instruction in German, Italian, French, Latin, and Greek;—Mathematics, Physics, Natural History, Drawing, Geography, Practical Arithmetic, and general notions of Commerce. In 1814, this Establishment was extended, and funds assigned to it as the superior Cantonal school.

The government has also converted the Nunnery of Alsberg, founded in 1083, into an institution for young women—girls not under twelve nor over fifteen years of age, are admitted: those who are natives of the Canton

pay two hundred and forty francs a-year — foreigners four hundred. The Government has provided six gratuitous places for poor girls of remarkable talents. German and French, Geography, Arithmetic, Natural History, Morality, Religion, History, the principles of Medicine, Sewing, Knitting, Embroidery, Domestic Economy, Drawing, Singing, the Piano, &c.—This Institution may also be considered as giving both an useful and ornamental education, which in the event of necessity will qualify young women for becoming governesses.

The College or Lyceum of Baden has about 200,000 francs in funds—there are seven other secondary schools or Colleges in the Canton.

The lately established Institutions at Aarau, for Artisans, founded at the expense of two citizens, one of whom gave 50,000, and the other 25,000 Swiss francs to effect this object, has been placed under the direction of the celebrated Zschokke. The course of instruction in this school, (the building for which was provided gratuitously by the town), is limited to Arithmetic, Mechanics, Mathematics, Chemistry, the Elements of Physics, Drawing, Modelling in relief, composition in writing, and moral precepts for the conduct of the labouring classes.

Schaffhausen.—There are Primary Schools in every district of this Canton. In the town there has been established for many years a public school for girls, a school for the sons of the labouring class, and others for poor children—a Gymnasium, in which Latin, Greek, French, German, Religion, History, Geography, Mathematics, Natural History, &c., are taught by twelve or more masters. There is also a gratuitous school of design, and a branch of Gymnasium is devoted to merely useful instruction.

For Medicine, Theology, and Law, there is a college of *Humanities*, in which the Sciences, Ancient Languages, Theology, Philosophy, Mathematics, Physics, &c. are taught. The Public Library, enriched by that of the Historian Müller, is open to all the citizens; and there are numerous other Institutions, Libraries, and Scientific Societies in the town and Canton, which had altogether extended the means of instruction to about one in seven of the population.

FREIBURG.—Education in this Canton seems to be altogether under the control of the Catholic Clergy. The Monks of the Abbey of St. Bernard have established an Agricultural School and farm, on the plan of that of M. Von Fellenberg. There are nine Monasteries and seven Nunneries in this Canton. Picot states that "there are in all this Canton, which has a population of 77,560, (of whom 5,220 only are Protestants),—two hundred and seventy-nine monks, two hundred and eighty-one nuns, two hundred and forty-seven priests, the proportion being one male devotee for one hundred and one Catholics. In the town of Freiburg which had then a population under 6,500, there were in 1827, no less than one hundred and forty-one priests, eighty-seven Jesuits, sixty-four Monks, and one hundred and forty-nine Nuns, or one in every fifteen of the inhabitants."

The Lyceum or College of this town, the Professors of which are Jesuits, is a stately edifice, lately much extended, with no less than five-hundred windows, and situated in the most commanding part of the town. Its magnificent halls, corridors, spacious refectories, handsome sleeping rooms, billiard tables, theatre, gardens, observatory, museum, laboratory, bazar, and toy-shop, all brightly clean,

render this the most imposing of all Colleges. It is, however, a superficial school for students, in which the Jesuits, whose manners are exceedingly gentle, watch over them in other respects with monastic vigilance, and when chastisement is inflicted, which is done by a masked lay brother, the punishment is barbarously severe.

The Bishop of Freiburg, who is a Prince of the Holy Roman Empire, and the Jesuits, appear to be, one and all, ignorant of all except old Canon Law, and a little Aristotelian Philosophy. Yet the dazzling appearance of learning draws thither, a vast number of rich students. About three hundred attended four years ago, and 1,000 at present. Various branches of study are taught in French and German, but, as regards real knowledge, the system is superficial and illiberal in its object, and two hundred years in arrear of the present state of learning. The Cantonal Council has voted this bigoted seminary about 240*l.* per annum, while the Education Council cannot get more than 25,000 francs, about 158*l.* for primary instruction, and all the other schools of the Canton. We have, however, numerous schools, as uselessly supported in England under the fictitious name of Grammar Schools—in which useless Latin, only, may be learnt, by a manufacturing and trading population.

There is a Latin and French Gymnasium in Romont, and primary schools in every commune, besides numerous boarding schools.

In this Canton, which is the most illiberal in its Oligarchy, it is remarked that in the part in which French is spoken, all the institutions, whether hospitals or schools, are better established than in the German sections.

Soleure.—The inhabitants of this Canton are also chiefly Catholics. In 1827, Picot states that there were ninety-eight Monks, one hundred and twenty-three Nuns, and one hundred and twenty-seven Priests—in all three hundred and forty-eight, or one for one hundred and fifty-two inhabitants.

The Lyceum was formerly directed by the Jesuits, and afterwards by three Professors. Primary instruction is generally diffused over the Canton. Poor children in the town are taught in the establishment called the Orphan House. Danzler, a Curate assembles about thirty teachers at appointed times, in his parish, to whom he gives instructions as to the most approved mode of communicating instruction.

Thurgau.—A mixed commission of Catholics and Protestants, superintends public education, which is chiefly directed to primary instruction. There is a Cantonal Agricultural Society, which disseminates practical instruction in farming.

St. Gall.—There is a college with twelve professors in the town for Catholics, in which those intended for the church may complete their studies. The Protestants have a Gymnasium, with the same number of teachers or regents. These institutions, with eight or ten secondary, and several primary schools in the Canton, afford but tolerable means of instruction, which, however, the government has for some time been anxious to extend and improve.

Appenzell.—In this Canton little further than diffusing primary instruction has been done in the way of public education. There is a good public library at Herisau, and several individuals possess libraries and interesting collections of objects in Arts and Natural History.

THE GRISONS.—There are in this Canton one hundred and thirty Protestants and eighty-seven Catholic parishes. The clergy, especially the Protestants, are wretchedly paid—not much more than three hundred florins per annum. They are as ill-lodged, and scarcely much better instructed. The Catholic clergy are somewhat better off, and so far well-lodged, that they are enabled to receive travellers under their roofs, but they are so poor that it is usual, on leaving, to give as much as the value of what is partaken of to the servant. Every department is elective in the Grisons; even the school-masters.

VALAIS.—The inhabitants of this Canton are all Catholics. In the seminary of Sion, there are ten or twelve teachers—in that of Brig, twelve, and in that of St. Maurice six. This, in respect to schools and intelligence, is by far the most in arrear, of any part of Switzerland. It is not even more advanced than the neighbouring country of Savoy.

URI.—There are scarcely any good schools in this Canton, and those that exist are chiefly attended to only in winter. Some parishes have none; in these the pastors teach the children to read and write. Those parents who can afford to do so, send their children to Luzerne, or other places. The parishes elect their pastors, and even direct their duties.

SCHWYTZ.—The inhabitants are chiefly Catholics. There is not a public library in the Canton; that belonging to the Convent of Enseidlen contains ecclesiastical works only.

There is a Latin school at Klosterli; generally there is little instruction but what the curates give to the children, there being no public system of education. Parents with

sufficient means, send their children to schools in some one of the other Cantons.

UNDERWALDEN.—Although the first efforts of Pestalozzi were made in this Canton, Education is scarcely more advanced than in Schwitz. There is a Gymnasium at Sarnen for theology, and another for the same purpose in the valley of Engelberg, with a library—the only one in the Canton.

GLARIS.—There are common parish schools in this Canton, and a good public library in the town.

Zug.—In this Canton considerable efforts have been made in diffusing primary knowledge. There is a gymnasium in the town, and a girls school directed by the nuns.

TECINO.—By law it is directed that there should be a school in every parish, for teaching reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic. These laws state that parents shall be compelled to send their children to school, under penalties to be fixed by the parish boards, which have the direction of the schools. The state of public instruction, according to all accounts, is still unsatisfactory, but it would appear that, since the late revolution, there has been more progress made than formerly.

Although in the democratic Cantons the state of education is yet far from being in a pleasing condition; yet, taking all Switzerland in respect to the means for diffusing knowledge, and especially the freedom of public instruction in all civil and political researches, we discover it approaching to perfection in comparison with the so much extolled Prussian system, and a much fuller inquiry than the limits of this work will admit, would be found highly interesting, instructive, and satisfactory.

XX. SWISS CHARACTER IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.—*Page* 156.

In most countries to which the Swiss have emigrated, they have earned distinction—the labouring classes for industry, sobriety, and honesty,—the more intelligent and higher by intellectual superiority, integrity, and consistency of character. Neckar, J. B. Say, Benjamin Constant, Delolme, Dumont, the philosopher, Aubuzit, (the friend of Peter the Great), Mr. Galatin, now of the United States, were natives of Switzerland,—and many others might be named who, as merchants, negotiators, and public men, have been and are honourable and benevolent ornaments to the countries in which they have transplanted themselves.

Not, however, with the object of comparing those illustrious men to one who in delighting the people and creating a more refined taste for music, should not at the same time be despised in his avocation, the following anecdote may be amusing—

Heidegger of Zug was manager of the London opera in Lord Chesterfield's time, about 1750, and being at supper with noble Lords, the question, what country of Europe has the most genius?—being asked, "Mine," said Heidegger, the company burst outright into laughter,—"I'll prove it," continued Heidegger, "I came here pennyless—in amusing you I have gained 5,000*l.* per annum, and I defy the most noble of you, my Lords, to go into Switzerland and do the same"—full of wit and talent, he was remarkably ugly, and yet talked of it, with the

best grace in the world. He one day bet with Lord Chesterfield that his Lordship would not find in London so ugly a man,—judges were chosen—after a long search an old woman was brought forth—the judges said, she certainly was ugly. Heidegger took off her coiffe, put it on his own head, and then his grotesque appearance changed at once the decision in favour of his ugliness.

XXI. SISMONDI.—*Page* 163.

This celebrated historian and publicist, has for some time written in the *Revue Encyclopedia*, and in the *Revue d'Economie Politique*, several admirable essays. His opinions on slavery in the United States are clear, forcible, convincing, and undeniable; yet Mr. Cooper, the American novelist, has taken upon himself, in a very uncharitable, not to say unreasonable spirit, to attack Sismondi.

XXII. AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURES OF SWITZERLAND.—*Page* 197.

Pasturage and agriculture form the leading means of subsistence in the Swiss Cantons, to which the lake fisheries and various manufactures lend very considerable aid. The Scotch plough, and, in many instances, the Scotch system of husbandry, have been extensively intro-

duced: and the knowledge of agriculture acquired at Hofwyl has been very generally diffused over Switzerland. The rent of land is high, but certainly the soil is turned to the utmost account to which labour and care can convert its culture.

Manufactures have of late years grown up to some consequence, especially in silk and cotton articles, all the raw materials of which are imported at heavy expense. The fabrics of Switzerland also, it must be observed, owe nothing to fictitious maintenance, and whether they may be profitable or not, they are the result altogether of ingenuity and industry directly applied.

The principal expensive imports into Switzerland consists of colonial produce, wheat and salt, with such raw materials as are required in the several manufactures. Mr. Picot in the last edition of his Statistics of Switzerland, gives the following statement of articles exported from the several Cantons.

The Canton of ZURICH exports linen, flaxen cloths, cotton, muslin, and silk; wine, fruits, turf for fuel, pit coal, cattle, and kirchwasser.

BERNE exports several manufactured articles; wood, cheese, cattle, horses, fruits, crystal, and pit coal.

LUZERNE, horned cattle, pigs, poultry, horses, cheese, wheat, hides, tallow, and wood.

URI derives benefits chiefly from the sale, or the produce, of cattle, and from the transport of merchandize across the St. Gothard.

The Canton of SCHWYTZ, from horses, and horned cattle, cheese, (Schabzigre), and wood. Herisau possesses a manufacture of silk, which employs a great number of workmen.

UNDERWALD, horned cattle, sheep, hides, tallow, cheese, fruits, chesnuts, and wood.

GLARIS, manufactured objects, chiefly cottons, herbs, (Schabzigre,) dry fruits, wood, and slates.

ZUG, dry fruits, chesnuts, cattle, and wood.

FREIBURG, platted straw, horses, horned cattle, and cheese, (gruyere), which is much esteemed in foreign countries.

SOLEURE, wheat, horses, horned cattle, cheese, tallow, hides, wood, cotton caps, and woollen stockings.

BASLE, manufactured articles of several kinds, especially silk ribbons, and silk stuffs, kirchwasser, cheese, dry fruits, horned cattle, and a little wine.

SCHAFFHAUSEN, wine, cattle, game, iron, steel, and building stone.

APPENZELL, linens, muslin, cattle, cheese, and honey.

SAINT GALL, several manufactured articles, wine, fruits, horned cattle, horses, hay, wood, chamois leather, marble, and pit coal.

The GRISONS, about 35,000 fat cattle per annum, sheep, cheese, minerals, tufas, gypsum, and marble.

ARGOVIE, wheat, wine, fruits, wood, stone for building, iron, and several sorts of manufactured articles.

THURGOVIE, cottons, linens, wine, oatmeal, and cider and perry.

TESSIN, paper, glass, cattle, cheese, chesnuts, silk, wood, fruits, and chamois leather.

VAUD, several manufactured objects, cattle, fruits, chesnuts, but especially wine, which passes for the best in Switzerland.

VALAIS, cattle, wood, and charcoal.

NEUCHATEL, wine, besides several manufactured articles, and especially watches and lace.

The Canton of GENEVA, manufactured articles, especially watches and clocks, jewellery, false stones, enamel, printed calicoes, and leather.

XXIII. FEDERAL PACT.—*(Still obligatory.)* *Page* 232

THE twenty-two Cantons mutually guarantee their independence and territory. They are bound to assist each other in maintaining their independance, and defending their territory. Upon the demand of any one Canton, the Federal Diet is to afford assistance to defend the country, and preserve peace. Disagreements between the Cantons must be referred to the Diet, and the decisions of the latter, submitted to. The free transit of provisions and other commodities, from one Canton to another, is guaranteed. No new duties or tolls, on exportation, or importation, can be imposed without the consent of the majority of the Cantons. There are no longer subjects in Switzerland; the enjoyment of political rights can never in future be the exclusive privilege of any class of citizens in any one Canton. The High Federal Diet, consisting of the deputies of two-and-twenty Cantons, having each a single vote, represents all Switzerland. The Cantons appoint Deputies for each Session, and receive instructions from their respective governments. The Diet assembles alternately, in the towns of Bern, Zurich, and Luzerne; two successive years in each. The ordinary Session begins on the first Monday in July, and lasts one month at least.

It is presided over by the chief Magistrate of the Canton where it assembles; which Canton is called the *Vorort* or directing Canton. Between the end of one Session and the beginning of the next, the direction of the Federal affairs is intrusted to the executive of the directing Canton, who must afterwards render an account of its administration to the following Diet. In affairs of great urgency, on the demand of five Cantons, or even of the directing Canton, an extraordinary Diet is convoked. Under similar circumstances, the Diet can, before its recess, invest the *Vorort* with extraordinary power, or associate to it representatives of the Federation, to act as a Federal Directory. The Diet declares war, concludes peace, forms alliances, or treaties of commerce, with foreign powers; appoints envoys and consuls; directs the organization of the Federal troops; appoints the general, colonels, and staff; calls upon each Canton to furnish its contingent whenever required, and directs the Federal forces, &c.

Many principles laid down in this Pact existed in the Government from the earliest period of Swiss independence. Those of modern date are considered improvements.

Although the Cantonal Governments have undergone liberal reforms, the foregoing Pact is considered to be in full force. There is no standing army in Switzerland; but every able-bodied male inhabitant is bound to take up arms in defence of the Confederation, and from being divided in companies and battalions, all, at stated times during each year, are alternately armed and drilled, they form a ready army of militia-men prepared to defend their country.

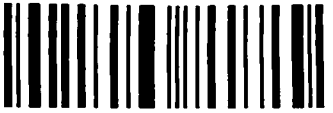
In case of ordinary emergency, a contingent force, in

all amounting to 33,000 men, are to be supplied by the several Cantons, and a contingent revenue of 550,000 francs. The Cantonal revenues, as stated by Picot, amounts altogether only to 9,000,000 Swiss francs—about five francs for each inhabitant. And that respectable authority adds, that some, as exterior Appenzell and other democratic Cantons, do not pay a twentieth part as much for each person as Geneva and Basle.

As a general rule, duties on imported articles are low, and in some Cantons nothing. Domains, monopoly of salt, as in Berne, transit duties, and land and house-tax, form the usual sources of revenue. Situated as Switzerland is between France and Germany, PRUSSIA, I am confident, looks anxiously to the extension of her *political commercial cordon*, around SWITZERLAND.

FINIS.

THOMAS CURSON HANSARD, PATERNOSTER-ROW.


00086203

Digitized with financial assistance from the
Government of Maharashtra
on 02 January, 2016